









# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

The title 'SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN' is rendered in a large, bold, blackletter-style font. The letters are highly decorative, with elaborate flourishes extending from the top and bottom of the 'S' and 'A'. The background is a dense, black-and-white illustration. At the top, a classical building with columns is visible. Below it, two figures are shown in a landscape setting. The central part of the illustration features a large, ornate scroll that contains the text 'AN ILLUSTRATED JOURNAL OF SCIENCE, MECHANICS AND THE ARTS'. Below the scroll, there are several circular vignettes: one showing a bridge, another showing a factory with smoking chimneys, and a third showing a ship. The bottom of the illustration includes a small oval containing the text 'Vol. CII.' and a larger oval containing the text 'MUNN & CO. NEW YORK'. The entire design is framed by intricate, swirling lines and floral motifs.

AN ILLUSTRATED  
JOURNAL OF SCIENCE, MECHANICS AND THE ARTS

Vol. CII.

MUNN & CO. NEW YORK



# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

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Dr. Leonard Hill of the London Hospital is conducting a series of experiments to determine how much harder a man can work after inhaling oxygen

INHALES OXYGEN TO INCREASE MUSCULAR ENERGY.—(See page 6.)

Progress during the past year in matters naval and military may be considered as decidedly satisfactory. Several ships have been completed, chief among which are the *Delaware*, *Delaware*, *Delaware*, *Delaware*, and *Delaware*. All big-gun battleships of our navy. These vessels which are of 10,000 tons displacement carry each four 14-inch guns. The *Delaware* on her completion will maintain an average speed of 18.75 knots. The *Delaware* and North Dakota dreadnoughts of 30,000 tons displacement carrying each ten 14-inch 45-caliber guns and fourteen 5-inch guns have passed through their trials successfully. The *Delaware* driven by reprogramming engines averaging at full power a speed of 14 knots and the North Dakota driven by Curtis turbines averaging 14.4 knots. The North Dakota maintained an average speed of 18.75 knots at lower coal consumption than the *Delaware*, and the naval officials are particularly gratified at the superior fuel economy and economy of the turbo-propellers in the cruising speed. Our third pair of dreadnoughts, the *Tennessee* and the *Tennessee*, of 18,000 tons displacement and the same armament as the "North Dakota," are now in the spring of 1905. They will be ready for work in about the same time as the *Delaware*, the *Arkansas*, and *Wyoming*, carrying twelve 14-inch guns on a displacement of 30,000 tons. The *Delaware* is the first of a new class of ships developed by our latest destroyers of the *Rose* type. The *Delaware* having averaged 23.67 knots and the *Rose* 25.71 knots in five runs over a measured mile. The results of this contest are very interesting and the results of this contest are very interesting and the results of this contest are very interesting.



## OXYGEN AND HUMAN ENERGY.

BY JOHN S. HAYES, M. D.

Oxygen is the life-maintaining gas. It is the most useful and the most abundant of all the elements as we still call them. Its use in oxidation with other substances—oxidation makes heat and that is why the sentient body is generally warmer than the atmosphere about it. All animal and vegetable life depends upon oxygen, under the beneficial influence the plants give out the gas which thus freed is respired in animal life. And by the term respiration in the physiological sense we mean not only the series of acts known as breathing (ut also that in respiration oxygen is carried from the lungs by the blood, through the minutest capillaries to the ut terminal cells and the most microscopic tissues of the body giving to it strength and warmth and life.

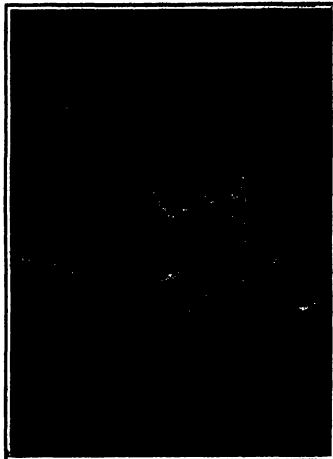
In point of fact life itself in our present knowledge is in one sense without oxygen, which is much more important than food to the human economy. Without the latter one may exist for months without the former one must die within a few minutes (consider also metabolism. Normal metabolism is the perfect chemical transformation of oxygen, fluids and food stuffs into healthy tissues. The process is a never-resting an ever-changing one. Respiration provides the oxygen, ingestion provides the fluids and the food stuffs. And in that it is fully complex laboratory. In the human body these substances are combined in the constant manufacture of fresh cells and tissues to take the place of those which are constantly dying and being removed by way of the lungs (carbon dioxide and watery vapor) and the excretory organs.

We are thus able to agree just one of the most valuable dicta of the evolutionists that normal living is the right adjustment of internal relations to external relations again whatever amount of power an organism expends in any state is the correlate and equivalent of a power that was taken in from without. In our physical life—as also in our mental for that matter—we are absolutely dependent upon a wholesome environment for wholesome existence and by far the most essential and the most beneficial element which our environment affords is oxygen. It is here very important to note that nature does not you breathe us this oxygen pure she has tempered it for our use by combining about one part of it with about four parts of nitrogen (an inert compound). Oxygen is so irritating and so active a form of oxygen in which three atoms are considered to be condensed into two—as in experiment has been found so casual as to produce pulmonary inflammation. The safest and the only good and right form of oxygen inhalation for normal respiration is in combination as it exists in the atmosphere for this is the form in which during many ages the race has become adapted. It is possible that in other some creatures respired oxygen under a different combination than that which now obtains but in those cases there were no human beings—only such creatures as ichthyosaurs and the dodo. No one can live most advantageously most wholesomely and with the best human results only in conformity with natural laws as we find them, and with due regard and regard to our environment.

There are however abnormal states of the human body in which oxygenation is deficient by reason of disease processes and in these diseases it is sought to administer oxygen in greater proportion than obtains in the ordinary atmosphere. We give it thus when oxygenation of the blood is interfered with as in dyspnea, anæmia, hæmorrhage, a crisis, whooping cough, asphyxia, tuberculosis and pneumonia and when the oxygen proportion in the blood is poor as in anæmia, diabetes and chlorosis (the green of youth). Here Hayes's findings are to live a authoritative. In such diseases as those just mentioned oxygen may be administered with a determined quantity of air extended to a considerable degree the nutritive functions, increases the appetite slightly elevates the temperature stimulates the cardiac movements and augments the bodily weight the number of red blood cells is increased and their organic activity is stimulated although this action

is not constant, the effects may become so by the greater nutritive changes that are thus promoted.

Observe how the position of Hayes's statement which I have italicized. In point of fact even in disease we do not as we could not, administer oxygen pure, moreover the nurse in administering holds the tube in such manner between the parted lips that some admixture of air taken through this admixture is essential if the oxygen is to be respired as all. Now here I, for my



Apparatus for registering work performed after inhaling oxygen.

## OXYGEN AND HUMAN ENERGY.

part has been always sure of the efficacy of oxygen in such diseases as pneumonia. I have felt that pure atmospheric air—the colder the better its tonic proper use—has been as efficacious as oxygen in cases in which it has been used. Some physicians indeed go so far as to declare that the appearance of the oxygen tank denotes the beginning of the end for the unfortunate patient. Nor does the oxygen tank supplied for use in the sick room contain pure oxygen. One of the firms which supplies this gas for the sick room informs me that their purest oxygen is 90 per cent the remainder being nitrogen (that is half the mass physicians prefer and call for tanks containing oxygen compound which is made up of 80 per cent oxygen 30 per cent nitrogen oxide (laughing gas), and 10 per cent nitrogen. I find it now very proper to present certain physicians (Concluded on page 10)

## HAYES'S NEW THERAPY.

BY JOHN S. HAYES, M. D.

When fever was recognized as a natural process by which the body endeavored to ward off invading enemies, the idea was suggested that heat, whether by heat in the increase in the temperature of these parts of the body which are affected by disease, thus assisting the human organism in its struggle against the morbid process. In fact, an additional method of treatment which have been in use from time immemorial. However, there was so far no possibility of really warming the body with heat, any effects being merely superficial resulting at most in a general heating of the whole body, the excess of which is known to be counteracted by abundant perspiration and evaporation of heat through evaporation.

The process described in the following paragraphs allows any part of the body to be heated to any temperature desired, producing locally fever temperatures of may 100 degrees to 104 degrees F. in order thus to increase blood circulation and to accelerate and intensify all those vital processes which are instrumental in defeating the disease. The local heating is effected by means of electric currents.

Though almost any galvanic action is attended by the production of heat the amount of heat generated by ordinary currents is insignificant. Any attempt to produce an appreciable warming effect by the application of electricity would further have been frustrated by the small amount of energy supplied to the human body in the form of ordinary currents, while any important increase would have resulted in a violent stimulus of the nervous system and the electrolytic destruction of tissues intensities of 50 to 100 milliamperes thus constituted the extreme limit, even in the case of small current densities whereas twenty to fifty times as much current would have been required for the production of an adequate heating effect.

High frequency currents as lately used in connection with wireless telegraphy afford a means of applying enormous amounts of current energy to the body without any risk of injury. In fact these currents perform vibrations of such rapidly as to exceed the limits of excitability of our nervous system. The alterations in current direction also as in the electrolytic effect.

The electrical vibrations generally used are too strongly damped to yield an appreciable effect. As in a communicating tube a liquid removed from its position of rest will oscillate to ever-decreasing distances from its position of rest so electric waves starting from a spark gap become smaller and smaller and only after an interval about two hundred times as long as those vibrations will a new discharge take place and generate a new set of vibrations. In order to increase the effect of these vibrations the intervals should be reduced to about the same duration as the vibrations themselves. Their effect would then be entirely equivalent to those undamped waves which have recently been generated for the purposes of wireless telegraphy by means of highly sensitive apparatus.

A Berlin firm has recently constructed an outfit for generating high frequency vibrations thus making heat penetration amenable to medicine as a new therapeutic method.

The most important part of the outfit, viz. the apparatus used to generate the vibrations, consists of two substantial copper electrodes separated by a small distance between which the electrical discharge passes in an enclosed compartment. These discharges are produced by the high tension of an electrical generator connected with the electrodes, and a vibratory circuit connected by in parallel with it, and consisting of a condenser and a self-inductance coil arranged in series. The condenser is charged gradually as the apparatus is started, and the discharge, which causes immediately, takes the shape of a rapidly extinguished spark between the copper electrodes. In a similar manner, by an electric spark discharge machine, which is kept at a constant high potential of voltage, the condenser is charged and the discharge is produced. The discharge is produced by the high tension of an electrical generator connected with the electrodes, and a vibratory circuit connected by in parallel with it, and consisting of a condenser and a self-inductance coil arranged in series. The condenser is charged gradually as the apparatus is started, and the discharge, which causes immediately, takes the shape of a rapidly extinguished spark between the copper electrodes. In a similar manner, by an electric spark discharge machine, which is kept at a constant high potential of voltage, the condenser is charged and the discharge is produced. The discharge is produced by the high tension of an electrical generator connected with the electrodes, and a vibratory circuit connected by in parallel with it, and consisting of a condenser and a self-inductance coil arranged in series. The condenser is charged gradually as the apparatus is started, and the discharge, which causes immediately, takes the shape of a rapidly extinguished spark between the copper electrodes.

AN APPARATUS FOR PRODUCING LOCAL HEAT THERAPY.

which is soon accompanied by a return, which in its turn precedes the normal oscillation, and so on. Hence the movement in the vibratory circuit are comparable to an elastic pendulum.

As far from being supplied directly, the vibrations generated by the condenser circuit, which is first rated by induction to a convenient tension, which is graded up by shuntages from the secondary coil. The current is supplied by means of the conductors to the electrode plates, to be applied to the body after first passing through an anamorph.

This thermo-pneumatic outfit can be operated by direct current with an alternating-current circuit, the tension being raised by a transformer before entering the generator. When continuous current is used a small converter, resembling an ordinary electric motor, serves to convert it into an alternating current.

#### AN AUTOMATIC APPARATUS FOR PROJECTING PICTURES

BY ALBERTO BORTA

Radigue and Manet of Paris have patented an automatic projecting lantern, which they call the "Circum." It consists of an electric lantern provided with an endless chain of slide holders, which are brought successively between the condensing and projecting lenses by a device and system of levers. During the movement of the slides, the light is automatically cut off by a shutter, so that the image does not appear on the screen until it has become motionless.

The lamps are self-regulating and designed for tensions of 7, 15, and 30 volts. The position of the arc is rigidly fixed and the carbons are inclined producing the maximum illumination. The focal length of the condensers is about 5 inches. The projecting lens can be focused by a rack and pinion, and covers a screen 8 yards square at a distance of 9 yards. The mechanism is operated by an electric motor of 1/40 horsepower, placed in the base of the apparatus. The apparatus is set into operation by moving a single key and the projection of pictures then continues—or may continue—as long as the carbons last or about 8 hours. Although the 150 slides which the apparatus accommodates are run off in from 10 to 45 minutes according to the speed to which the mechanism is adjusted. The automatic projector saves the expense of an operator and should interest all proprietors of projecting apparatus, and lecturers in general. In the theater it will replace advertisements painted on the curtain, in railway stations it may be employed to show the scenery along the line, and in newspaper offices it will prove more useful and effective than written bulletins or projecting lanterns of the ordinary type.

#### THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN TROPHY

The year 1909 has closed with only a single trial for the Scientific American Flying Machine Trophy. That the publishers are disappointed in this lack of interest in the sport goes without saying. Up to the present time Mr. Glenn Curtiss is his credit, is the only American aviator who has displayed an interest in a prize which the publishers of this journal donated at considerable expense for the purpose of encouraging the development of an art which, thanks to Langley, had its scientific genesis in this country. Were Curtiss our only aviator we could understand why he alone should present himself as a contestant. There are at least three other American flying-machine pilots in the field with whom Mr. Curtiss would surely have edged with pleasure. The conditions under which Mr. Curtiss won the Trophy for the month last year were by no means onerous. The deed of gift to the Aero Club of America provided for an annual competition by heavier-than-air machines only, with the understanding that the conditions governing the contest were to be changed from time to time so that they would bring upon the prize money in the designing and building of flying machines. In this respect the contest was not only aeroplane, but also a contest of ingenuity, with no

helicopters and ballooning machines, would receive encouragement. The conditions required at first were a straightaway flight of one kilometer (0.621 mile) in a straight line. On July 4, 1909, Mr. Glenn Curtiss carried off the Trophy by covering somewhat more than a mile in the "June Bug." In view of the flights which were then being made by French aviators the conditions were changed for 100 to 150 kilometers (15½ miles) in a closed circuit, in other words 5

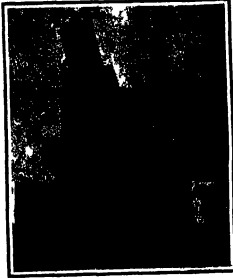
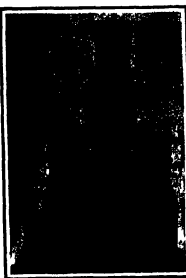
His achievement is remarkable, because he flew double the distance required in the Bennett Cup Race. The lack of entries for competition during 1909 was certainly not due to formidable conditions as the Aero Club, in establishing the rules for the year, endeavored to make them so easy that any aspiring competitor would feel that the Trophy would be well within his reach. The discouraging fact remains that during the past year in spite of the notable achievements of Curtiss and the Wrights very few new men have come into the field. Reports reach this office from various parts of the country that machines are being built but successful flights are few and far between in France during the past year the science of aviation has advanced by leaps and bounds as was witnessed by the successful flights at Rheims and Juvigny and by the almost daily reports of successful trials of new machines or long cross country flights by well-known aviators. There are fortunately a number of men in various parts of the country who are making serious experiments and it was hoped that great strides would be made during the year 1910 and that the competition for the Trophy will bring into the arena a large number of new experimenters.

Possibly the present lack of progress is due to the fact that in America at least the aero plane is not as yet what may be called a commercial product. It was not until the automobile had become a serious competitor of the horse drawn vehicle that the Bennett and Vanderbilt cups and other automobile racing trophies were earnestly contended for. Perhaps the history of aeronautics sport may be the same and that when aeroplanes are manufactured wholesale the flying machine will hold a recognized position in the sport of the country in France we believe there are no less than a dozen establishments actively engaged in the making and selling of aeroplanes. This placing of the flying machine upon a commercial footing undoubtedly has played its part in popularizing the movement and the biplane among Frenchmen. For all that however there must have been popular enthusiasm before the industry could have been started—as an incentive which was not that of making money. We hope that in 1910 Mr. Curtiss will again be a competitor that he will pit himself against men who are worthy of his steel and that a contest will be inaugurated which will arouse in this country something like the enthusiasm which was evoked at Rheims.

The conditions which will govern the contest for the cup in 1910 will be announced later. They will be so drawn as to keep pace with the progress made last year.

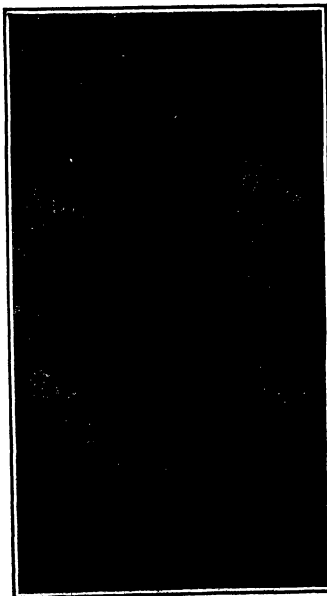
A table prepared for the Archiv für Eisenbau states that at the commencement of 1909 the total railway mileage of the whole world was 594,842 miles divided as follows: America 162,928 Europe 199,344 Asia 56,284 Africa 18,515 and Australia 17,795. The rate of construction per mile has been highest in Great Britain and Ireland where it averaged \$271,000 per mile in Belgium the cost was \$171,900. France \$125,000 Germany \$109,500 (Italy \$111,000 Russia \$79,600 per mile. In the United States the average cost has been \$89,800 in Canada \$28,000 in New Zealand \$60,500 and in Queensland Australia it is as low as \$54,200.

The boring conducted by the Prussian Department of Mines at Curbow in Rhineland has been discontinued recently upon reaching a depth of .40 meters in view of the fact that the cost of drilling at this depth in hard sandstone was out of proportion to the obtainable results. Like the boring at Parushowitz in Rhineland which had to be abandoned at a depth of 1,900 meters on account of the drills breaking the Curbow boring was undertaken for scientific purposes only since mining operations are of course entirely impossible at this depth, even if no account is taken of the explicity with which the expense for hoisting increases with depth.



AN AUTOMATIC APPARATUS FOR PROJECTING PICTURES.

kilometers (31 miles) more than required in the International Contest for the Bennett Trophy. Under the 1909 rules the winner for any year is the aviator who makes the longest and best flight in a closed circuit during that year. In 1909 Mr. Curtiss was the only competitor who came forward. He easily complied with the conditions and accordingly he must be regarded as the winner of the Trophy for the year 1909.



SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN TROPHY

Won in 1909 and 1910 by Glenn H. Curtiss.



## REPRODUCTION OF THE YEAR 1909.

(Continued from page 6.)

without question that helium is produced from uranium as well as from radium, the amount being two milligrams of helium annually from one million kilograms of uranium.

In photography we find an interesting attempt to present moving pictures in colors by several inventors—Barricelli, Price-Greene, and Urban and Smith. Curiously enough, all three presenters employ the same principle of the rays presenting images colored red, yellow, and blue that the eye has no time to notice the successive presentations, and therefore combines them into one picture. The same principle of cinematography must be mentioned. The important application of the moving picture machine to the ultra microscope by Dr. Comandon, an application somewhat similar in principle to the combination of the ordinary microscope and kineoscope made by Dr. Robert X. Watkins of this city over ten years ago. Comandon's invention promises to be of considerable educational value in actually enabling us to see the struggles of our blood corpuscles with their microbic enemies.

## Theodolite.

In view of the great advance in its efficiency, the theodolite lens is entitled to be considered the most notable improvement of the year in the field of electricity. Mention should be made, however, of the important hydroelectric plant at Niagara Falls, which produces power from the air, which is being so successfully operated that its product is being sold in successful competition with the supply from Chili. Also the calcium cyanamide fertilizer, the new aqueduct, the experimental stage, has, during the year, been demonstrated to be commercially practicable. The Bell telephone process has been further improved, and in January of last year the new aqueduct was successfully used between Paris and Lyons. The process of transmission is based upon the fact that a photographic plate in bichromated gelatin presents a series of elevations and depressions, advantages of which is taken for producing, by a tracing point, oscillating movements, and fluctuations in the transmission current. De Forest has improved his system of wireless telephony as used in our battleships during the world cruise, and a number of stations have been put in operation on the Great Lakes for communication with steamships. Chicago has been established over the ninety miles separating Chicago from Milwaukee, and steamers have been in touch with the shore from a distance of forty-five miles. Gabel, in France, has achieved results in the use of the electric foot motor by the wireless method previously tested by Twiss in this country and Armstrong in England. The torpedo is driven by an internal-combustion motor, and immediately after the explosion the head is a compact containing the wireless-controlled instruments. It is claimed that the control is effective up to five or six miles. In recent tests the motor was started and stopped at will and the rudder was successfully operated from a small boat at a distance of a little over 100 yards. Mention should also be made of experimental wireless communications with a balloon, made by the United States Army Signal Corps by means of a 300-foot phosphor-bronze wire suspended below a balloon 1,000 feet in the air. Communication was kept up from the Washington station until the balloon was about six miles distant, and messages were received from Annapolis over distances of from twenty to ten miles.

The application of electric traction to steam railroads continues to show gratifying results. Although no figures have been made public as to its economy, the electrical operation of the suburban tracks and terminals of the New York Central and New Haven lines has been carried on throughout the year with unbroken success. The New York Central electric lines are being extended to White Plains, and the New Haven Company are building a line of experimental one-mile head line near Stamford, preparatory to the extension of the system to New Haven. The latter company have also ordered two experimental freight locomotives, and it is the intention to operate the whole line from New York to New Haven, a distance of nearly eighty miles, with electric traction both for freight and passenger service. The Pennsylvania Railroad Company are building a line of experimental one-mile maximum horse-power built for the operation of their tunnels and terminals in New York City. An important improvement in these engines is the removal of the motor from the front end of the engine, and the frame, with a view to raising the center of gravity and reducing the stresses on the track and roadbed. Mention should be made here of a most important enhancement of the capacity of the New York Central and New Haven lines, the maximum output of 8,000 kilowatts of the big cross-compound engines has been increased to

16,000 kilowatts by inserting a Curtis turbine in this manner.

## Aeronautics.

Great as was the advance made in aeronautics during 1909, it was far surpassed by the extraordinary developments of the past year, and when the history of this new art comes to be written the monumental performance at the Rheims meet, and subsequently, will be referred to as marking the era of practical and thoroughly controlled human flight with the heavier-than-air machine. On July 26th, Orville Wright completed the government tests at Fort Myer by flying for ten miles across country at an average speed of 43.8 miles per hour with a passenger aboard, having previously made a flight of 10 miles with a passenger over a closed circuit which lasted one hour and twelve minutes. The government purchased the machine at the contract price of \$80,000. What was probably the most popular performance of the year occurred on July 26th, when Bleriot made his successful 21-mile flight across the English Channel. At the great Rheims meet, which opened on August 2nd, no less than 18 aeroplanes were entered, of which 16 made successful flight, there being about an equal number of biplanes and monoplanes represented. Here the public witnessed the astonishing sight of as many as half a dozen aeroplanes in the air at one time, the pilots of which showed perfect control of their machines in the gusty wind that prevailed. Both Bleriot and Curtiss proved how man can ascend now to the heights by reaching the 600-miles-per-hour mark, the former winning the 61.2-mile race at a speed of 67.78 miles per hour, and Curtiss bringing home to America the International Cup by covering 12.7 miles at a speed of 67.94 miles per hour. That the aeroplane possesses endurance as well as speed was proved by Farman, who won the long-distance race with a record of 111.88 miles covered in 3 hours, 4 minutes and 5/8 seconds. Subsequently to the meet, Farman, on November 3rd, at Mornmelon, France, made a bold bid for the Michelin Prize, held by the Wright brothers, by covering 41 miles in 1 hour, 17 minutes and 52 seconds, and since, at the present writing, there is no indication that the Wrights will make an effort to retain the cup, it must perhaps be returned to France. During the year the Wrights have been exhibiting at Fort Myer. Wright proved his faith in the reliability of his machine by flying from Governor's Island up the Hudson River to Grant's Tomb and back again. Early in October Orville Wright is in an exhibition at Boston, and many, rose to the unprecedented height of over 1,600 feet, a feat which has since been approximated by Count de Lambert, Pruhlan, and Latham. Count de Lambert's lofty ascension occurred during a flight from Jivray to Paris and back, a distance of 30 miles, during which he was above the Eiffel Tower. An encouraging fact, pointing to the future success of flight, is the increased assurance with which aviators are now making their flights under unfavorable weather conditions. Instances of this occurred both at the Rheims and at the Blackpool meet, when squalls also drove his machine around a closed circuit in the face of a wind which was heavy enough at times to bring him almost to a standstill. Taken altogether, it must be admitted that the honors of the year are about equally divided between the monoplane and the biplane. Future developments will be in the direction of improved devices for starting and alighting, and the introduction of some form of device for securing automatic stability. A most encouraging feature is the great reduction which has been made in the weight of the aeroplanes. Curtiss' machine weighed over 450 pounds and Santos Dumont's 18 "Gipsy" models, which is credited with a speed of over 80 miles an hour, weighing, without the aviator, only 250 pounds. On July 16th, 1909, Glenn H. Curtiss, by carrying more than the necessary 154 miles in a closed circuit, won the Scientific American trophy for the year, a feat which his first success being scored in 1908. It is a strange anomaly that there should have been but a single competitor in the country which gave birth to the successful aeroplane.

In the own field the dirigible has made proportional progress both in speed and in endurance. Count Zeppelin with his powerful dirigible "Zeppelin 11" is far ahead of all competitors; and his journey from Friedrichshafen to Berlin and back, a total distance of 800 miles, was a fine performance, and redounds to the everlasting credit of the veteran inventor. Other long-distance journeys accomplished by Zeppelin during the year were a trip from Friedrichshafen to Munich, a distance of 160 miles, in 4 1/2 hours made with "Zeppelin 1," and a journey of 130 miles in 5 hours, during which the great dirigible occupied no less than 36 men.

## Automobiles and Motor Cars.

The automobile has reached such a stage of perfection that the need of improvement is confined on the whole to matters of detail—no striking advance has been developed during the year. The high-powered car is now built almost exclusively for racing purposes.

For touring, a limit of 40 to 50 horsepower is found to meet the requirements of the average purchaser. The principal development has been in the increasing popularity of the low-powered car of 30 horsepower; and it is now possible to purchase a car with ample room, embodying all the coveted features of long wheel base, light weight, and generally smart appearance, for prices varying from \$700 to \$1,000. The long-distance race have raised the automobile to a position with the automobile the subject in its usual comprehensive manner. The power boat, propelled by the internal-combustion motor, is enjoying such increasing popularity, that it bids fair to reduce the sailing yacht to an entirely secondary position in public favor. Mention should be made of a very creditable experiment made by Mr. H. L. Aldrich of International Marine Engineering, who equipped a 40-foot boat with a 25-horsepower 4-cylinder petrol-gas engine. Extensive cruising during the past summer proved that the boat could cover over 600 miles at an average speed of 8 to 9 miles an hour on one ton of fuel, and that it could make a truly remarkable performance. The hydroplane motor boat, of which we heard so much two or three years ago, seems destined to remain what it has always been, a curiosity interesting to the curious. At a race it has shown high speed, but not sufficient to enable it to win against the high-powered boat of standard pattern. The fastest record was made by a 12-foot boat, which was established on a 600-horsepower English boat, which won the principal race at Monaco last year over a 61.4 mile course at an average speed of 39.15 miles per hour.

## Flying Machine Manufacturers.

Deputy Commissioner of State W. H. Hanger reports from Frankfort that a limited stock company has been formed in Berlin by leading German industrial concerns for the purpose of manufacturing flying machines of the Wright type.

Wittber and Orville Wright have given the new company, whose firm name is Flugmaschinen Wright, G. m. b. H., the right to work all their patents, models, etc., for making aeroplanes in Germany. The new company has a working capital of 600,000 marks (\$119,200), its principal participants are Krupp Company, of Essen; A. Borsig Maschinenbau, of Berlin; Deutsche Waggon- und Maschinenbau, of Delbrück; L. & C. bankers, Ludwig Loew & Co. machine, arms, and tool manufacturers; Aeriale Vehicle Company, Motor Air Locomotion Co., of Berlin; and the Electric Chemical Company, of Rittenfeld. Capt. von Kehler will be the managing director of the new company.

## The Aviation Meeting at Los Angeles.

America's first aviation meet will be held at Los Angeles, Cal., from January 19th to 30th inclusive. Announcement has been made that prizes to the amount of \$45,000 will be available for aeroplane contests, \$25,000 for a long-distance balloon race, and \$15,000 for dirigible balloon contests. Full particulars are not yet at hand, but we understand the aeroplane events will be for height, speed, and endurance. Paulhan, the record-breaking French aviator, is bringing over two Bleriot monoplanes and two biplanes, and Moers, Charles F. Willard and Glenn H. Curtiss are to make flights with the Aeromarine Society's biplane and one of Curtiss' latest machines respectively. Roy Knabenshue and his associates and other aviators will compete in the dirigible contests. The meet has been sanctioned by the Aero Club of America. It offers the first opportunity Americans have had to see aeroplane contests and racing flying by heavier-than-air machines.

## The Automobile Show in New York.

On New Year's day is the American Motor Car Manufacturers' Association will open its annual automobile show at the Grand Central Palace in New York City. This show of the "unlabeled" manufacturers will last a week. There will be 125 exhibits, and the total value of the exhibits is in the neighborhood of \$1,000,000. Nearly 100 exhibits of complete vehicles have space, while the exhibits of parts and machines are more numerous than ever before.

The Licensed Association of Automobile Manufacturers will hold their tenth annual show in Madison Square Garden from January 6th to 16th. The latest model Automobiles of the Standard Automobile Co. will be shown in connection with the second show upon the latter date.

The automobile industry is so far advanced by Glenn H. Curtiss, a German, and by so many improvements on the car, that it is now in the country with cars that give a public demonstration.

### Aviator Hamilton's Flight at St. Joseph, Mo.

After learning how to fly at Curtis balloons and making several excellent flights at Hammondsport, N. Y., the longest of which lasted 25 minutes, Charles K. Hamilton made some daring flights at St. Joseph, Mo., recently, as detailed in the following correspondence. The machine he is using is the same one that Mr. Curtis used at Governor's Island, New York, when he attempted to fly there during the Hudson-Fulton celebration. It is fitted with a 30-horse-power cylinder water-cooled motor, the cylinders being in a direct spread. The machine weighs some 600 pounds.

The first flight at St. Joseph was made on Sunday, December 12th, over a circuitous but course above the town surface of Lake Ontario. After a straightforward flight of a half kilometer against the wind and a kilometer with the wind in order to test the motor, the machine ascended in a snow storm so intense as to be blinding to the spectators. The velocity of the wind exceeded 30 miles per hour. A sinuous height of 40 feet was maintained throughout the one and a half times around the course—five miles—except when nearing the Odessa, a summer opera house that juts out into the lake. This forms the "aeroline graveyard" of the course. On Tuesday, December 14th, a trial in the field inside the race track was made. The wind was blowing a gale and the aviator flew a very short flight. A start was made over ice, snow, and weeds of the infield. The machine got off the ground under these adverse conditions, but made a 100-foot flight only. A new carburetor was fitted to the engine and a 3-bladed propeller substituted for the 5-bladed one. A bad spark plug gave trouble throughout the day. Later the machine was wheeled to the lake, and a start made from the ice. The aviator forced the demolition of the machine, and held close to the surface. A piercing northwest wind swept the ice, and during the two flights the velocity of 45 miles per hour was made with the wind while flying near the west shore. The timing was done by Mr. J. H. Hen, and the distance was measured by your correspondent.

Wednesday was a day of failure, owing to motor trouble and unfavorable wind, until a late hour in the afternoon, when two trials were made over the field within the race track. The first flight was very short, and the second resulted in breaking two support braces of the horizontal rod. The manager of the flight appointed by the Retail Merchants' Association insisted that the machine be flown the first time within the race track. This was an undulating surface covered with ice and snow, and only 1,500 feet was repaid.

On Thursday, after the 5-bladed propeller had been replaced and the old carburetor reinstated, the machine was taken to the lake once more. A stiff north wind gave delayed flight until late in the afternoon. Two flights, or rather a series of short flights, were made. A circuit of the course was accomplished with numerous touches. Only three cylinders were firing part of the time, and at these intervals the machine touched the ice. The motor finally fell altogether, and the machine was stopped so suddenly by the application of the brake that it skidded completely around on the ice. This resulted in breaking the cement of the line and almost ripping them off. Later, when the second flight began, after covering 600 feet the motor started missing, and while passing through a snow drift two times around, looking one wheel, but nevertheless this time the engine was running and covered 1,000 feet. The motor picked up in the meantime. Altogether, some remarkable facts were accomplished.

The flight on Sunday, December 19th, was discontinued owing to inability to see, the fast-falling snow having formed ice upon the aviator's goggles. This flight was made in private, and was not witnessed by many people.

On Sunday, December 19th, aviator Hamilton made his longest and best flight at St. Joseph. He circled above Lake Ontario for twelve minutes. The flight was witnessed by 400 interested spectators.

### Preserve Your Papers! They are of Permanent Value.

By taking a little trouble, when a paper first comes to hand, it may be preserved to form a permanent and valuable addition to the reading matter with which everyone should be supplied. We furnish a neat and attractive card board binder, which will be sent by mail, prepaid, for \$1.50. It has good strong covers, on which the name SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN or SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN HOUSEHOLD is stamped in gold, and means by which the numbers may be securely held as in a bound book. One binder may thus be made serviceable for several years, and when the successive volumes are published, the binder may be enlarged. Fourth, the subscriber ultimately saves himself, for a moderate cost, in possession of a most valuable addition to his library, embracing a wide variety of subjects and general information. Send for a copy and complete instructions. Save your papers.

## Correspondence.

### WRECK OF THE "NORTH DAKOTA."

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:—Following closely on the heels of the article in the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN giving the new U. S. battleship "North Dakota" the proud title of "Fastest Dred-nought," there appears in the columns of a Canadian publication of the first class a statement to the effect that British "Dreadnoughts" are known to make an average of over 25 knots an hour, while the maximum average made by the "North Dakota" is below 25 knots an hour.

If the exact figures relating to Great Britain's naval affairs are not very generally known, may it not be that she, perhaps more wisely, prefers not to publish to the world her naval secrets, while Americans, in justifiable pride over their achievements, are making ill-considered haste to claim the first place in the progress of naval science. I have a right to expect the perfection of accuracy in all matters treated of in the pages of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN. M. W. Bunsford, Quebec.

The "Dreadnought" referred to as making over 25 knots are probably the cruiser-Dreadnoughts of the "invaluable" type. The "North Dakota" is of another class.—ED.

### EFFECT OF BATTERY POSITION ON STENOGRAPHIC CABLE.

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:—I take much pleasure in reading your paper, and believe that the cable, was especially interesting in the article describing the monorail car. I have seen the groove principle, for balancing such a car, discussed numerous times, but there is one point regarding gyroscopes which I have never seen mentioned in connection with this scheme.

It may not be of much importance, but it is nevertheless interesting, to note that a gyroscope does not retain its balance relative to the earth, but relative to a fixed point in space. In other words, it would appear that on a "mono-railroad" running north and south a car would be tilted to the west at the rate of fifteen degrees per hour, or one degree every four minutes, due to the rotation of the earth.

Of course, this is not fast enough to inconvenience anything, and perhaps Mr. Brown has provided a way to overcome this difficulty, but if not, it would be interesting to hear what others have to say in regard to this.

At any rate, a solution of this problem would be more interesting and of more practical benefit than the computation of our ancestors. For the monorail appears like a great improvement over the double-rail system for economical and rapid transportation. In fact, for light, high-speed passenger and express traffic, it would seem as if there is a great future in the use of the monorail. T. H. BAKER, Lockwood, Ohio.

### SAFETY IN MINES.

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:—I noticed in a recent issue of your valuable journal a suggestion for the better safeguarding of the lives of coal miners. As this suggestion was on the lines of ideas that I have for some time entertained, I would like to amend your suggestion by an addition.

I believe that stations of refuge, provided with fire and gas-proof doors, should be established in various places in coal mines, and that these stations be provided with a hose or canvas driven from the surface by well-driving machinery. This would allow an air, food, and water supply to be maintained indefinitely, whether or not it should be necessary to seal the mine for the purpose of extinguishing a fire. Of course, it would be necessary to equip each of these stations with telephone and possibly lighting facilities, and of course, with facilities for forcing air into the mine.

I am assuming, without having made figures on the proposition, that sufficient air to supply a considerable number of men could be forced through a six-inch tube by sufficient pressure.

I believe it should be compulsory that mine operators should provide some stations which would prevent such appalling calamities as the recent one at Cherry, Ill., and which is of some similar kind. It would be no slight that it would be practicable to carry the same into effect. ALAN T. BROWN, Bryans, N. Y.

### REMEMBER SAFETY FOR MINES.

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:—As a further safety precaution in the operation of mines, I would suggest the drilling of large holes as many as may be necessary, from the surface to the main arteries of the workings, up through which, in case of disaster such as the recent one at Cherry, Ill., or which may be drawn to safety. Sometimes the hole may be quite common in the old country, and larger ones could be drilled if necessary. These holes could

be located at different advantageous points, and terminate in rooms or chambers cut out at the end of the sides of entries in such a location as to not interfere with their daily use. Holes made in corners, four chains, 30 feet long, spaced equally around a circle the size of the mine, and located at the bottom of the spider at their upper ends, five small circular platforms of strong wire mesh, spaced six feet apart, in side these shafts, would make what could be termed a "safety" cage that would haul five men or ten boys up at a trip.

Such a cage could be galvanized for durability, would be strong, and not weigh over 100 pounds. There could be handholds placed on the sides of the cage for the men to grasp to steady themselves. These cages would collapse when they would strike the bottom and could be quickly loaded, a man stepping on to each platform as it would be slowly raised, and when loaded, could be quickly hoisted to the surface. A perhaps better cage could be made of strong wire mesh, platforms and all but would have to be made to descend into a sunny drilled deeper than the bottom of the mine, so that it could be loaded as it was raised.

The hoisting drum on the surface could be operated by steam, air, electric, or even horse power. The latter would have been invaluable at Cherry, Ill., as there would have been ample time for even a slow-operating apparatus to have saved all able to get to it, but an electrically-driven hoister would be preferable to any other. Wires from the power house could be run to each hoister, and proper insulation would insure the apparatus to be in working order, if it should be needed.

Air could be blown down these holes for the supply of the men at the bottom, even if the cages were being used, the wire mesh construction of the cage saving its passage. Water, food, oil for light, etc., could be sent down through the holes, and even doctors with medical cases.

The holes could be left open at all times for ventilation, but if such would interfere with the working of the fan currents and other ventilation systems of mines, the holes could be kept closed at the top by a proper battery of valves. If such valves were closed down and interfere with the working of mines, the holes could be plugged at the bottom by means of an oil well packer or similar device, which, while perfectly watertight, can be quickly removed, leaving the hole clear.

I can see no reason why this plan of rescue in case of mine disasters would not be entirely practicable and effective, even in mines of the low pressure type. Indiana, Pa.

HOWARD ROWE.

### The Current Supplement.

An illustrated description of the large double-deck bridge which has been constructed over the River Wear to accommodate both railroad and highroad traffic is published in the current SUPPLEMENT, No. 1774. "A Log Book and How to Make It" is the title of an article which will undoubtedly be read with interest by amateur mechanists. Up to a few years ago water powers were easily bought for a song. Nowadays they have no definite value that the matter of ascertaining their actual horse-power is of considerable importance. Mr. W. T. Hyman explains how this calculation is made. Robert M. Strong's excellent comparison of electric and steam engines is continued.

The comet families of Saturn, Uranus and Neptune are discussed by H. C. Wilson. L. H. Backeland describes the use of his newly invented substance, "ballother" for electrical and chemical purposes. The article on scope has entered a new field. It now shows us moving pictures of a world which is invisible to the naked eye and revealed only by the ultra microscope, all of which is explained in the current SUPPLEMENT. James Scott writes on microscopic free fungi. The efficiency of modern aeroplanes is discussed by G. Garner on the basis of the results obtained at Rheims.

### A Correction.

In an article on page 462 of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN of December 18th, 1909, it is stated that by the introduction of a turbine engine in the low-pressure cylinders and the condenser of the cross-compound reciprocating engines in the 59th Street power station an additional 8,000 horse-power was secured. The item should have read an additional 9,000 kilowatts. The maximum economical output of these engines is now 8,000 kilowatts developed in the reciprocating element and an additional 9,000 kilowatts in the turbine making a total of 17,000 kilowatts or say about 22,000 horse-power for the whole engine.

The Municipal Art Commission of New York has just published a book of 240 pages, entitled "Belong to the City of New York." It is a book of 240 pages, and contains more than 100 illustrations reproducing the works of art scattered around the city.

## THE GREAT ST. BERNARD HOSPICE

BY HENRY J. HARRISON.

The St. Bernard Hospice stands some 8,150 feet above the level of the sea, on a mountain peak which forms one of the principal highways between Switzerland and Italy. Over 20,000 persons cross this road every year and so nearly inevitable of this number to accomplish the journey in winter the monks and dogs of the hospice whose mission it is to aid these few travelers may be said to be essential for many lives every year.

The hospice is an ancient building, the oldest part of it is a tower of the 12th century. It was founded by the monks of the Benedictine order for the purpose of pilgrims journeying to Rome. For many years after it was first erected it was subjected to frequent attacks by bands of mountain robbers. Often the brave monks were forced to barricade themselves in their stronghold until some weather drove the robbers away. Once the hospice was destroyed by fire in 1794 and was re-erected when it took its present form. The Alps in Italy in the spring of 1800 the force numbered 30,000 men and for miles they lay in the valley. It was a very difficult task to keep the troops from the steep mountain passes often waited for them in the snow. The monks of the hospice were the only ones who could be relied upon to guide the troops into the passes. The monks of the hospice are now sheltered into a huge hospital ward.

When first seen the monastery from an elevated point of view is disappointing. It consists of a plain block of grey buildings with massive walls built to resist the wind and the weight of snow. In midwinter the snow around the buildings is seven to ten feet deep and sometimes forms drifts against the edifice that reach right up to the roof. If the exterior is disappointing the same cannot be said of the interior. On the side reserved for the better class of travelers there is a spacious dining room containing a handsome piano treasured to the monks by King Edward while the bedrooms with their soft cushions and feathered beds are the source of comfort. Anyone crossing the pass is at perfect liberty to enter the hospice and accept its hospitality. No traveler is ever turned away. Two good meals are served every day, namely at 12 noon and at 6 P. M. At these meals representatives of almost every nation on earth may be seen. Italians naturally predominate. Next come Swedes, then Russians, Germans, French, Turks, Spaniards, English and perhaps two or three American travelers. The food is plain but good and plentiful and the beverage served is the famous red wine of Piedmont. After meals travelers spend their time much as they wish in easy conversation with one another in games in reading the books in the library or in inspecting the curios in the museum.

Not so long ago the hospice was put into telephonic communication with the outside world with the result that the work of the monks has been lightened and that the number of lives lost has been reduced to a minimum. The monastery is connected by telephone

that at any given moment the monks know the exact number of people on the pass and their approximate whereabouts.

Only a few weeks ago a message was received on the telephone that three men, two women, and one child had started up the path. The weather was unsettled at the time, and two hours later a blinding snowstorm came on. At once two of the brothers accompanied by two dogs hastened down the pass to look for the travelers and guide them to the hospice. They knew about where the travelers should be and were surprised that the dogs failed to come back. After nearly two hours of fruitless search a dog arrived from the monastery. He carried a message to the effect that after they had left, a telephone message had been received saying that the travelers had returned to the inn.

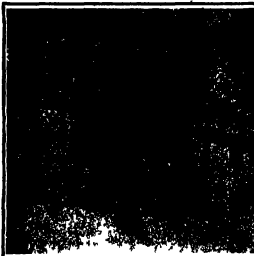
When speaking about the dogs M. Bourgeois the present provost and his principal assistant Father Jules Darbellay to whom I am indebted for the information contained in this article assured me that the wonderful stories that have been told about the sagacity of the dogs are not exaggerated. Near the hospice is a monument to Barry. This dog saved forty lives in a period of ten years and then was accidentally killed.

In the kennels at the hospice there are at the present time fifteen trained dogs and an equal number of bitches and young puppies. They were all born at the monastery. Their training is very simple. During the summer months when the monks are not so busy they take the young dogs out in the valleys or hollows where there is always snow. One man then lies down in the snow or buries himself in it. A dog is sent to look for him. He is taught to bark when he has found the man and also to rouse him up from sleep by licking his face. When the man wakes up and stands on his feet the dog leads him to the hospice running on in front to show him the way.

According to the traditions of the monastery the St. Bernard is a cross between a Danish bull bitch and a mastiff, a native hill dog though at what time the cross was effected it is impossible to say. After the breed was once established it was kept pure until 1813 when owing to the severity of the winter the monks were obliged contrary to their usual custom to send out the brood bitches as well as the dogs with the result that all the females succumbed to the cold and the monks found themselves without the means of continuing the pure breed. In this extremely a cross with the Newfoundland was tried but at first failed owing to the excessive coat of the Newfoundland, which hampered the dogs in the snow however by breeding back to their own short-coated dogs, the



Looking for bodies in the snow after an avalanche.

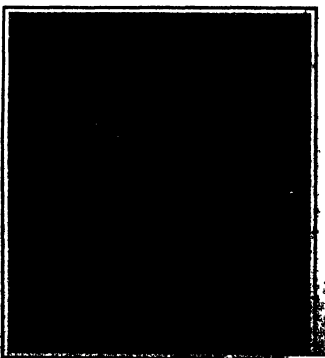


St. Bernard dog with flag of wine.



The interior of the chapel.

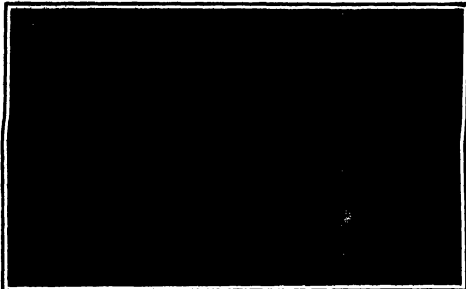
with a small inn on the Swiss side and with St. Remo on the Italian side. At both these stations arrangements are made by which the monastery is warned of the number of persons that commence the ascent from these two places. Through these advances the monks know exactly how many travelers are making the ascent from either side of the mountain. It is really impossible for anyone to attempt to make the ascent without the monastery being warned. Often a party of travelers set out for the hospice in fine weather. A few hours later a sudden storm comes on, and the monks knowing at what time the ascent was begun, know approximately what spot the travelers should have reached. At the hospice a light is kept burning the telephone, and also the music of the church that plays the music, so



The dog looking out from the hospice.

penful obtained the desired specimens of east, though occasionally specimens were born with the rough coats. These rough-coated animals were sold or given away to the inhabitants of the surrounding valleys, who continued to breed them so that St. Bernard dogs soon became general in Switzerland. The full grown specimens in the kennels at the hospice are magnificent creatures of their kind. They stand thirty inches high at the shoulder and weigh about one hundred and fifty pounds. They are exceedingly strong and can carry a man for a considerable distance. By nature they are gentle and friendly to man, and in the puppy season when the mothers are apt to resent attempts to handle their pups.

This band of faithful creatures commence their work in earnest at the end of September and continue looking for lost travelers right on to the middle of June which period represents the winter season on the pass. In the depth of winter not a vestige of a path is visible. The snow drifts too present formidable obstacles. Besides there is the danger of avalanches. Fogs are frequent and in stormy weather the wind rises to a hurricane blowing the snow into one's eyes and making it impossible to see any distance ahead.



Entrance to the St. Bernard hospice

Indeed the monks will not hesitate to tell you that during the winter months it is impossible for an inexperienced traveler to venture upon the mountain and safely negotiate the pass without receiving help

Considering the perils of the road one may well ask why people venture upon it during the winter. The fact is the greater majority are poor workmen going or returning from their labors on the other side of the Alps. In February and March as many as a hundred will make their way across the pass in a single day. It is then that the monks are busy. They think nothing of remaining out in the snow seeking the lost, for twenty four hours at a time. Father Darbellat told me that he has known the dogs to remain out in the snow for two days eating very little and not taking any rest or sleep.

[illegible][illegible]

Young dogs in the snow  
 who never see winter before



Great St. Bernard hospice in winter Such snowdrifts are not extraordinary in the Alps.

[illegible]

The following notes concerning the storage of California crude oil in concrete reservoirs were recently given in Concrete. A 100,000 barrel reservoir lined with concrete has recently been completed at Port Richmond and one of 800,000 barrel capacity is under construction near Bakersfield. The practice is to excavate the earth which in most fields is a sandy loam porous and very dry to about one third the depth of the proposed reservoir. With the material removed a levee is built round the excavation having side slopes of



### Training a dog with dummies to discover a lost traveler

1 1½ on both faces. The bottom and sides are then covered with about 3 inches of concrete often reinforced with expanded metal or some equivalent. Small cracks that occur at the junction of the sides and bottom and along the line between the cut and the embankment soon become filled with sediment and are believed to permit the leakage of very little oil.

A number of such structures in Southern California have recently been examined and no signs of depreciation in the quality of the concrete were found even in those which had been in use for a considerable period.

## THE HEAVENS IN JANUARY

BY ERNEST HOWARD MOORE, Ph.D.



As we watch the brighter stars on a clear winter's night we may well be impressed with the notable differences in color among them. What may strike us first is that a very bright star like Sirius when seen on the horizon visibly changes color from moment to moment. This is like its twinkling, purely an effect of our atmosphere whose refraction changing slightly as masses of air of different density are carried across our line of sight by the wind causes now one color now another to be strengthened for a moment in its spectrum while others may be for a moment almost absent.

But when the stars have risen high and the night is clear and calm so that these disturbances are no longer perceptible the differences of color persist. Sirius is brilliantly white and so are most of the stars of Orion. Capella, whose light much resembles that of our sun, is clearly yellow. Aldebaran is orange red and Betelgeuse redder still. The fainter stars whose light is too weak to show much color to the naked eye when as unaided with it (also open show similar differences in hue.

The cause of these phenomena so easily observable must be sought in the stars themselves. Recent physical research has made it almost certain that we may find it in their heat nature.

If we take a solid body such as the carbon filament of an incandescent lamp and heat it up gradually to higher and higher temperatures which in this case we may easily do by increasing the electric current—we will observe that when it first becomes visible its light is of a dull red. As the current is increased the light becomes very much brighter and yellow in shade of red.

If finally we apply a very high voltage and put through the lamp a heavy current which it can stand only a short time without breaking down it will give for the moment an intense white light far whiter as well as far brighter than under ordinary conditions.

All in incandescent solids (liquids behave in the same way and careful work both in the laboratory and on theoretical lines has led to a formula (too complicated to be given here) which enables us to tell just how much light of any given color (or wave length) will be given off per square inch of surface at a given temperature. We cannot of course experiment with temperatures as high as those that prevail upon the sun but there are good reasons to suppose that the formula fits the facts very closely even in this case.

We may illustrate the results by an example. Consider a star of the same temperature as the sun and suppose that we observe it (1) through deep red glass which transmits only the extreme red rays, (2) through a yellow glass transmitting only the yellow and green light, (3) by photography when the violet rays are also effective. Now suppose its temperature suddenly doubled. Our formula tells us that through the red glass it will look seven times as bright as before, through the yellow glass more than ten times and by photography some twenty times as bright.

If on the other hand its temperature was reduced to half its initial value its light would fall off much more rapidly, the ratio to 1/40 the yellow to 1/100 and the blue to but 1/400 of its original amount.

Suppose now that we had three stars close together in the sky whose surfaces were at the three temperatures just discussed. Which of them will look brightest to us will depend on how big they are and how far away. Let us suppose that, viewed through the

yellow glass, they all seem equal in brightness, in which case the hottest one must of course be much smaller or much more remote, than the coldest.

From the numbers just given we can deduce that, when seen through the red glass the hottest star will seem but 70 per cent as bright as the one which resembles the sun and the coldest star twice as bright as this standard of comparison. On the photograph the disparity will be even more marked. The hot star will appear twice as bright and the cold star only one-quarter as bright as the one of the solar type.

We have thus a means of determining their temperatures even though we do not know how far off they are nor what is their actual brightness by comparing their relative brightness in light of different colors.

An extensive series of observations of this sort have recently been made at Potsdam by Scheiner and Winking using apparatus of high precision and great care to avoid all sources of error and employing five different colors of light so that the comparison of the values obtained from them might serve as a check not only upon the accuracy of the observations but (if the formula used in calculation).

The results are highly satisfactory and form an important contribution to our knowledge of the stars. As is obviously to be expected from what has been

seen in the southeast. High up, almost overhead, is Rigel, marked by the right of the Pleiades and the red Aldebaran. Below is the splendid Orion, and beyond him Castor Major with the innumerable Hyades. Most of the south is taken up with the great polar star Capella. Below are the Twins, and on the right Procyon. The faint star cluster Praesepe marks the place of Cancer and on the horizon are Arcturus and Leo partly risen.

The constellations in the southwest are much less prominent. Arcturus which is high up at once is recognized by the peculiar small triangle formed by its three principal stars. The stars of Ursa Major are also double. Our faintest shows how ridiculously little resemblance there is between the figure of the Man and the stars which bear his name.

Briarrose, Octus and Frons are those of them very bright but the planets Mars and Saturn which are close together in the east are conspicuous. The very brilliant object in the southwest early in the evening is the planet Venus.

Pegasus and Andromeda are well seen in the west. Perseus is right overhead and Cassiopeia, Cepheus and Cygnus occupy the Milky Way as far as the northwestern horizon. Ursa Major and Draco are under the pole and Ursa Major is coming up in the northeast.

## THE PLANETS

Mercury is evening star until the 26th when he passes between us and the sun and becomes a morning star. He is well visible during the first half of the month especially about the 10th when he rises about 2 15 P. M. He is then in Capricornus far from any bright star and should be easily identified.

Venus is exceedingly bright and conspicuous especially at the beginning of the month when she sets about 2 10 P. M. By the end of the month she has come nearly into line between us and the sun and is less prominent setting about 7 P. M. But is still far brighter than any thing else in sight.

Mars is in Pisces at the beginning of the month close to Saturn and gradually moves outward into Aries. He is in quadrature with the sun on the 17th and is on the meridian at 4 P. M. Viewed telescopically he shows a marked gibbous phase—like the moon three days from full.

Jupiter is in Virgo and rises about midnight being in quadrature with the sun on the opposite side from Mars on the 4th. Saturn is almost opposite him in the sky in Pisces and is visible in the evening almost till midnight.

Uranus is in conjunction with the sun on the 11th and is invisible throughout the month. Neptune is in opposition on the 9th and is visible all night long. He is then in E. A. T. 17 m 28 s declination 21 deg 33 min N and is moving 71 s to the west and 16 sec. northward daily. His motion alone serves to distinguish him from the stars unless one has a telescope powerful enough to show his disk.

## THE MOON

Last quarter occurs at 8 A. M. on the 8th new moon at 7 A. M. on the 11th first quarter at 7 A. M. on the 13th and full moon at 7 A. M. on the 15th. The moon is nearest us on the 17th, and farthest off on the 4th and 21st.

She is in conjunction with Jupiter on the 13th Venus on the 11th Mercury on the afternoon of the 12th, Saturn on the 12th Saturn on the 17th Mars on the 19th, and Jupiter once more on the 20th.

Princeton University Observatory

The memory of the late Capt. Charles W. Ordway, who was Admiral Dewey's flag officer on board the cruiser "Olympic" at the battle of Manila Bay in 1898, has been honored by a brass memorial tablet which has been placed on the wall of Westport High School in Danvers, Mass. The tablet was approved by popular subscription.

At 11 o'clock Dec 1  
At 11 1/2 o'clock Dec 15  
At 12 o'clock Dec 18

At 1 1/2 o'clock Dec 20

At 1 o'clock Dec 7  
At 1 1/2 o'clock Dec 14  
At 2 o'clock Dec 16

## NIGHT SKY: DECEMBER AND JANUARY

said the white stars are the hottest. The average temperature of those observed came out about 11,500 deg. C. just about double that of the sun.

The average temperature which they calculate for a number of stars whose spectra resemble the sun is 5,500 deg.—a little higher than that of the sun itself. That of the stars which resemble Arcturus in spectrum is 4,200 deg. and that of the reddest stars like Betelgeuse about 3,500 deg.—lower than that of the carbons in the electric arc. (The arc light of course looks far bluer than most stars but this is because much of its light comes from hot carbon vapor which like the mercury vapor in the new familiar lamps gives a strongly colored light of its own in this case violet.)

A rather faint telescope comet was discovered by Mr. Daniel at Princeton on the night of December 8th. It was then about fifty million miles from us and very close to perihelion. It is now slowly receding from earth and sun but will remain telescopically visible until the end of January or later.

Baily's comet though well placed in the evening sky in Pisces not far from Mars and Saturn will probably still be much too faint to see without a telescope.

## THE STARS

The finest region in the starry sky is now well

# THE RIGNOUX-FOURNIER SYSTEM OF TELEVISION

In the present state of science, the solution of the problem of vision at a distance by means of electrical transmission apparatus is only a question of money. Researches in this field are directed toward the utilization of a peculiar property of the element selenium, which conducts electricity more or less readily in proportion to the intensity of the light which it receives. Upon this property is based the system of electrical transmission of photographs which was invented by Prof. Rignoux, of Munich, and which has for several months been in regular operation in the laboratory of the Daily Mirror in London and L. Illustration in Paris. The general arrangement of Rignoux's apparatus has already been described in the *Scientific American*.

The photograph to be transmitted is a negative film, is wrapped round a cylinder which is caused to rotate before a source of light so arranged that only a very small area of the photograph is illuminated at a time. The pencil of light after traversing the film falls upon a cell of selenium forming part of an electrical circuit which extends to the receiving station. Owing to the property of selenium mentioned above the current which flows through this selenium cell at any instant is proportional to the instantaneous strength of the current in the selenium cell at the transmitting station. The film at the point traversed by the pencil of light at that instant. At the receiving station this fluctuating current is employed to uncover to an extent proportional to the instantaneous strength of the current a lens which conveys a beam of light upon a photographic film carried by a cylinder which rotates in synchronism with the cylinder at the transmitting station. Hence the part of the film on which the beam falls is illuminated and consequently blackened to a degree proportional to the transparency of the corresponding part of the original film. In short a negative at one station produces a negative picture at the other by the successive transmission of many small parts.

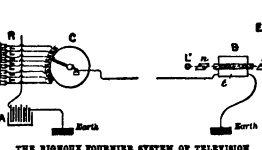
Instead of prolonging the operation in this manner let us suppose that it is all done at once. Let us project the image upon a sheet of selenium divided into a very large number of small cells each of which is connected with the receiving station by a separate wire. It is evident that in this way the entire picture could be transmitted at once and consequently that electrical vision at a distance could be realized. But in order to accomplish this thousands of wires each connected with appropriate apparatus, would be required and the expense incurred would probably be out of all proportion to the value of the results obtained.

This theoretical scheme has not formed the basis of any practical experiments which have yet been brought to public notice. It was announced a few months ago that H. Ruhmer, the well-known electrician of Berlin, had solved the problem and that his apparatus costing an enormous sum to construct would be the principal attraction at the Exposition at Brussels in 1910. No details of the apparatus have ever been published. We know that it employs selenium but we do not know whether it uses one wire or many wires.

In his state of the problem it seems particularly interesting to note the solution proposed by two French inventors, M. Rignoux and Prof. Fournier, some of whose experiments the writer has had the good fortune to witness.

Rignoux and Fournier have invented two types of apparatus. The first is designed merely for demonstration and necessitates the employment of many wires. It may be described briefly as follows. At the transmitting station an object (a large letter of the alphabet for example) is projected on a screen and its image is projected by a lens upon a frame containing a number of selenium cells each of which is connected with the receiving station by a separate wire. Each cell and its wire, transmit a current proportional to the brightness of the part of the image projected on that cell and the corresponding part of the object. At the receiving station these simultaneous currents of unequal intensity traverse an equal number of little cells, and thereby uncover the same number of little mirrors to an extent proportional to the strength of the various currents. Beams of light reflected by these mirrors are projected on a screen, side by side, forming patches of various degrees of brightness, proportional to that of the corresponding parts of the object. With a very large number of selenium cells, wires, and mirrors it is possible to transmit a picture with fine detail and very gradations of tone. The experimental demonstration, which is actually made in summary and

crude, but quite convincing. The multiplicity of wires is a serious defect, which the inventors believe they have found means of remedying in their second apparatus which is in course of construction and is illustrated by the accompanying diagram. At the transmitting station the rays of the luminous source *L* are reflected by the mirror *M* upon the object *O*. The image of which is projected by the lens *I* upon the frame of selenium cells *F*. (The diagram shows a frame of eight cells and an object divided into eight equal squares. Two of the squares are white and their images illuminate the two corresponding selenium cells.) The very weak currents transmitted by the selenium cells are sent into the relay *R* where they set into motion much stronger currents, the intensities of



THE RIGNOUX-FOURNIER SYSTEM OF TELEVISION

which are proportional to those of the selenium cell currents to the illumination of the respective cells and to the brightness of the corresponding parts of the object.

The problem is to transmit all of these currents through a single wire without confusion and to receive them and cause them to act separately and simultaneously at the receiving station. For this purpose Rignoux and Fournier have devised the following arrangement. The currents are conveyed to the contact pieces of the collector *C* from which they are taken successively by a rapidly rotating wheel which is connected with the receiving station by a single wire.

Let us for the moment disregard the question of speed of transmission and consider the means by which these successive currents are received.

At the receiving station the light of a source *L* polarized by its passage through the Nicol prism *P* traverses the tube *T* which is filled with carbon dust

synchronism with the collector of the transmitting station, and which carries a number of mirrors *M'*, equal to the number of selenium cells. Hence each mirror reflects a quantity of light proportional to the illumination of a particular selenium cell and the brightness of the corresponding part of the object. The mirrors are so arranged that the light reflected by each falls on a different part of the screen *S* on which is thus produced a mosaic picture formed of patches of various degrees of brightness of the object exposed at the transmitting station.

It is possible to transmit and make visible in this manner, employing a single wire, an image produced by several thousands of selenium cells. Yet there is no difficulty in constructing a frame of 10,000 or more selenium cells each connected by a separate wire with the collector which comprises an equal large number of contacts. Now if we remember that the frequency of alternation of an alternating current often exceeds 100,000 cycles per second in the case of modern apparatus, we see that 10,000 currents can be collected and transmitted successfully over a single wire in a small fraction of a second.

By the employment of 10,000 mirrors at the receiving station an image composed of 10,000 patches of light can be projected within the same fraction of a second. The different parts of the picture will be projected successively but they will appear to be simultaneous owing to the persistence of impressions on the retina of the eye. If the projection of the entire picture is accomplished within 1/40 second and the apparatus can be so constructed that this process will be repeated indefinitely giving the appearance of a persistent picture instead of a fleeting glimpse.

Hitherto we have supposed the number of mirrors to be equal to the number of selenium cells. It may be found possible however to diminish the number of mirrors and to operate each mirror successively by the currents from several cells. This modification would doubtless involve complications and difficulties in construction which we need not discuss. For the present it is sufficient to show that the problem that at a distance by means of a single wire connecting the two stations has been solved by MM. Rignoux and Fournier. In the practical realization of the device the inventors will have to reckon with the phenomena of self-induction interference and the electric inertia of selenium but these are familiar technical difficulties which will sooner or later be surmounted.

## DAVID STARR JORDAN

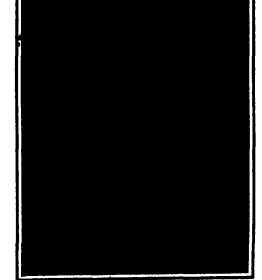
HE WAS A SCIENTIST AND A MAN

The distinction of studying natural history under Louis Agassiz in the laboratories in Cambridge is one to be highly appreciated and of the many eminent naturalists who were so fortunate as to receive their first inspiration under the guidance of that renowned master many if not most have traced their activities. Of the earlier students Brooks Hixson and Packard have joined the silent majority. Alexander Agassiz, Frederick and Verrill are fortunately still with us in the happy possession of an assured fame. At the close of the elder Agassiz's career he established a summer school on Foxholm Island and it was there that a young man who has achieved especial distinction, Richard Harshbarger, the Assistant Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution who is now directing the activities of a score or more of younger men in the work of the National Museum and David Starr Jordan who presides over the destinies of the Great Stanford University in California. Prof. Jordan has been a valued and devoted member of the American Association to be held this week in Boston and of him is the following brief sketch.

David Starr Jordan was born in Gainesville New York on January 19th, 1857. He grew up on his father's farm in Wyoming County receiving his early education in schools in the vicinity of his home. In 1880 he entered Cornell and there devoted himself to scientific studies. He was a member of the history and geology departments and was a member of the Phi Kappa Phi Honor Society. He was a member of the Phi Kappa Phi Honor Society. He was a member of the Phi Kappa Phi Honor Society.

He was called to the position of natural history in Lombard University in 1873 a place which he held for a year and then accepted the principalship of the Appleton (Wis.) Collegiate Institute. He then entered the Anderson School on Foxholm Island as a student and returned there on his father's estate during the summer of 1876. It was there that he came under the influence of the elder Agassiz and began his studies.

(Continued on page 16)



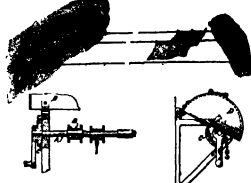
David Starr Jordan

The New President of the American Association for the Advancement of Science

phide, and then falls upon a second Nicol prism *P'*, which is crossed with regard to the first prism. The tube is surrounded by a coil of wire *B* which is connected with the wire coming from the transmitting station. Hence the currents which traverse the selenium cells for the transmitter flow successively through this coil and produce an electromagnetic rotation of the plane of polarization of the light which is passing through the carbon dispersive to a degree proportional to the illumination of the particular selenium cell which is immediately connected with the wire causing corresponding fluctuations in the intensity of the light which emerges from the second Nicol prism *P'*. This beam of light of varying intensity falls upon the cylinder *D* which rotates in

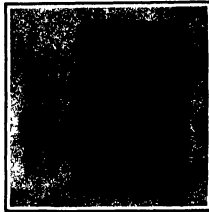


**CLOTHES-LINE HANGER.**  
The clothes-line hanger which is illustrated in the accompanying engraving is adapted to support a num-



**CLOTHES-LINE HANGER.**

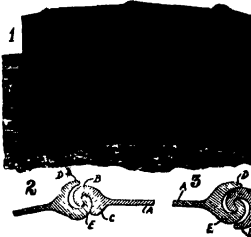
ber of clothes lines at the same time, and yet permits of taking up the slack of the lines individually or altogether when desired. The lines are attached at one end to a fixed support, while the other ends are connected to separate reels, all of which are mounted on a single shaft that may be wound up to stretch the lines taut. The shaft, which is indicated at *A*, is provided at intervals with square sections adapted to fit the square boxes of the reels *B*. The shaft is mounted in suitable brackets attached to a wall, and at each end is provided with a ratchet and a crank, so that it may be wound up to tighten the lines. Each line is provided with a hook at one end adapted to engage a



**A NOVEL METHOD OF COOPERING CASKS.**

corresponding eye in the bar *H*, which is made fast to an opposite wall or other support. Whenever it is desired to take in one of the lines, or to tighten it or loosen it with respect to the others, the reel on which it is wound is moved axially until it clears the squared section of the shaft *A*, and is then free to be turned in either direction. Whenever desired, the bar *H* may be released from its support and the lines wound up. A cover plate *D* may then be dropped over the reels to protect them from the weather. A patent on this clothes-line hanger has been obtained by Mr. George T. Van Riper, 161 South Ocean Avenue, Prospect, N. Y.

**BOLLED STEEL PILING.**  
One of the defects of sheet piling as heretofore constructed is that the interlocking edges which con-



**BOLLED STEEL PILING.**

nect one pile with another are apt to spread open when the piles are under strain. Patented hereafter is a new form of sheet piling with strong definite joints so constructed as to operate beyond doubt at the various positions which the piles may assume with relation to each other. Fig. 1 shows a set of piles driven in a curved row. Details of the interlocking parts are given in the sectional views, which show two different forms of piles. Each pile consists of a web *A*, furnished with a pair of flanges formed to interlock with the flanges of the next adjacent pile. In the construction shown in Fig. 1, the right and left-hand ends of the pile differ in design. The left-hand end has a wide tapering flange *B*, that is bent in the form of a hook, and a short, slightly curved flange *C*. The right end of the pile is somewhat similar in form, the flange *B* being curved to approximately the same form as flange *B*, but the flange *D* is considerably longer than the flange *C*. Fig. 2 shows a preferred construction. The interlocking parts are of the same design, except that they are made in right and left-hand forms. With either design the interlocking flanges will rigidly be retained under pulling strains at whatever position the parts may assume. The piles are of simple construction, and may readily be rolled in rolls of proper design. The inventor of this piling is Mr. William Neilson, of 1279 Montezuma Street, Pittsburgh, Pa.

**GAS-MAIN STOPPER.**

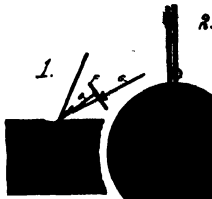
A novel form of gas-main stopper is illustrated in the accompanying engraving. It consists of a flexible diaphragm mounted on a collapsible spring frame, which may be expanded in the gas main by exerting pressure at two diametrically opposite points. The shaft *A* is indicated at *A*, in the illustration, and when in collapsed condition is elliptical or oval in form. The diaphragm attached to the frame is shown at *B*. Connecting opposite extremities of the oval shaped spring frame *A* are a pair of telescoping members *C*, to which the operating handles *D* and *E* are attached. It will be evident that when the handle *E* is drawn upward and handle *D* pressed downward, the member *C* will telescope, drawing the frame into its circular form. In order to provide for operating both of the handle bars simultaneously, a crosshead *F* is fitted to the outer end of the bar *D*, and is provided with an aperture through which a threaded bar *G* is adapted to pass. The bar *G* terminates in a hook, which engages a link secured to the bar *E*, and a thumb nut threaded on the bar *G* and bearing against the crosshead *F* serves to draw the bar *E* outward, and at the same time to press the bar *D* inward, so as to press the stopper into the circular form. In use the stopper is introduced into the gas main through an opening, and inclined with its lower end extending toward the end from which the gas is flowing. The operating bars project through the opening, and when the thumb nut is tightened the frame is brought to a nearly vertical position, as indicated in the drawing, thus lying crosswise of the main and effectually stopping the flow of gas. The inventor of this improved gas-main stopper is Mr. Patrick Goodman of 257 East 123rd Street, New York City.

**A NOVEL METHOD OF COOPERING CASKS.**

It is customary to build casks with tapering sides, so that the hoops which bind the staves together may be jammed tightly in place. This makes it necessary to shape the staves, which entails considerable waste of material and much trouble in assembling and sending them into position. Another disadvantage is that the tapering or bulging cask requires more room for storage than if made truly cylindrical. A novel method of overcoming these difficulties has recently been suggested. The accompanying engraving illustrates this method. Between the staves and the hoops rings are placed, which are tapered as indicated in the sectional view, Fig. 1. When the rings are driven down they act as wedges to jam the hoops tightly, so as to bind the staves in place. In order that the ring may contract in diameter as it is wedged into place, it is made of wire or a strip of metal that is crinkled or bent into a slung form. This lightens the construction, and provides a better grip on the hoops and staves. In many trades small bugs and leaks of moderate size for liquids are required, but their high price and the cost of machinery for making them is prohibitive for many purposes. The casks here described are especially suited to meet the requirements of such trades, because after the staves and heads are prepared they can be finished inside and out (including cutting the grooves) in an ordinary lathe, producing an inexpensive cask of attractive and lashed appearance. The inventor of this novel construction is Mr. William Hecker of Nelson, New Zealand.

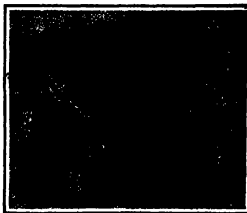
**AREA-MEASURING APPARATUS.**

A very unique method of measuring the area of surfaces with irregular boundaries is pictured in the accompanying engraving. It consists of a flat sheet plate that is magnetized, and held between a permanent magnet, and a number of soft iron balls. The area of the plate depends upon the dimensions of the area to be measured. The drawing on which the area is outlined is placed over the plate, and to protect the drawing a thin piece of paper is placed over it. The area out-



**AREA-MEASURING STOPPER.**

lined is then filled with the iron balls, which are fast on the under side to prevent them from rolling. The magnetized plate converts the balls into temporary magnets, causing them to cling to the plate and to each other. After the area of the drawing is filled, the balls are taken out and placed in a measuring frame, as indicated in the engraving, and the number of square inches occupied by the balls is ascertained. Tables are furnished which permit of reducing the square inches thus found to the scale of the drawing, thus giving the area sought without any calculation. It will be observed that the side members of the mea-

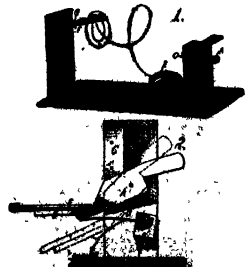


**AREA-MEASURING APPARATUS.**

uring frame are calibrated, and the sliding cross-bar is provided with vernier scales, so that the area occupied by the balls may be obtained with exactitude. The ease with which any given area can be set on for trial should make this apparatus valuable to engineers and surveyors. It is adaptable to irregular as well as regular surfaces. The inventor of the area finder is Mr. Alfred C. Freeman of Norfolk, Va.

**A NEW GAME.**

Pictured in the accompanying engraving is a novel game apparatus, which is adapted to afford considerable recreation, as it calls for a certain amount of skill. (Continued on page 15.)

















# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

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NEW YORK, JANUARY 8 1910

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THE SPEED OF AN AIRPLANE PROPELLER.—[See page 27.]

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NEW YORK, SATURDAY, JANUARY 8th, 1910

The Editor is always glad to receive for examination illustrated articles on subjects of timely interest. If the photographs are sharp, the article short, and the facts authentic, the contributions will receive special attention. Accepted articles will be paid for at regular space rates.

## A NEW ERA OF THE STEAM ENGINE.

**F** In the days of the perfected duct-burn expansion steam engine, anyone had ventured to criticize the type as being very inefficient as a means of extracting the heat energy of the steam that passed through it, he would have been considered as hypercritical, to say the least. And if he had ventured to predict that within a few years, by introduction of a certain type of low-pressure steam engine and the condenser, it would be possible to show an increased economy of from 25 to 35 per cent, and, in some cases, to increase the total horse-power output of an engine by from 70 to 100 per cent, he would have been regarded as a visionary. Yet it is a fact that this doubling of the capacity of an engine has actually been accomplished, as stated in our editorial of December 18th, 1929, describing the remarkable work being done by the new direct power station of the New York subway system.

It is no exaggeration to state that the low pressure turbine has introduced an era of improvement in steam-engine practice which is destined to mark an advance in the art, greater than any recorded during the past century of the history of this great prime mover, and we say this with full appreciation of the progress that was made with the introduction of compounding and the later multiple-expansion engines.

A century ago, as we recently showed in our discussion of the low pressure condensing engines of the time of Robert Fulton, boilers were so weak and steam engines so inefficient that the only way to get the necessary capacity when iron and steel plates became available for boiler manufacture, there was a corresponding rise in steam pressure, which led to a gradual abandonment of the condenser and a tendency to use higher and higher pressures. The high-pressure engine exhausting directly to the atmosphere was, of course, an extremely wasteful device, and the invention of the condenser was a direct result of the fact that it followed the triple and quadruple engines, the limit of expansion being reached when the low-pressure cylinder became too large for practical purposes. If a cylinder were built that would carry the expansion of the steam to the condenser, the engine would be a more efficient engine, its dimensions would be exaggerated on all proportion to the rest of the engine; the weight would be enormous, and the losses through the walls of the great radiating surface would be prohibitive.

The steam turbine, on the other hand, is particularly adapted for accommodating the great expansion of the steam in the lower ranges of pressure, just as the reciprocating engine is better suited for developing the expansion in the higher ranges. The turbine losses in the higher ranges are largely due to the friction of the rapidly revolving blades in the steam as well as to the relatively high density when under high pressure, whereas steam friction is not a serious factor during the expansion of steam in a high-pressure cylinder. At the lower pressures the steam has a small density and the turbine blades are so designed that they cause the great drop in temperature in a low-pressure cylinder to induce rapid condensation, and greatly reduce the efficiency.

Hence, it will be seen that the reciprocating engine working on the higher ranges of pressure and the turbine working on the lower ranges are the complementary, the one of the other, and when acting in combination form an ideally economical arrangement.

The range of application of the new system is wide and already the turbine is winning back for useful work an enormous amount of heat which was formerly lost in the reversing rolling engine at the steel works.

in the winding systems of collection, and in the houses of various industrial establishments, there has become possible to run an addition to the power on the power fed between cylinder and condenser. The largest steamships in the world, now under construction, will embody the same combination in their engine rooms. In these days of anxiety over the rapid depletion of our natural resources, the surplus steam turbine must be welcomed as one of the greatest conservers of our supplies of coal and liquid fuel.

### RAPID TRANSIT BY BELT CONVEYER

**B**Y the action of the Board of Estimate of this city, which, on December 3rd last, passed a resolution authorizing the Public Service Commission to lay out a moving platform subway in Thirty-fourth Street between Second and Ninth Avenues, there will be given an opportunity to test a system of transportation which we have always considered to be ideally adapted for relieving the crowded traffic conditions in congested centers of large cities.

By far the most efficient means of moving material in bulk is the belt conveyor. For transporting material that is in a more or less finely divided condition, or made up of a large number of small separate units, such material, for instance, as grain, coal, or iron ore, the belt conveyor is recognized in the industrial world as having no equal—provided, of course, that the distance to which the material is to be carried and the speed are not excessive.

The moving platform is practically continuous, with a belt conveyor for the conveyance of a large number of passengers at moderate speed. It consists of short lengths of platform, coupled together, forming an endless track. The thirty-fourth Street subway will be four parallel rows of platform, the first, adjoining the station platform, moving at three miles an hour, while the second, third and fourth, which will be thirty feet apart, will move with seats, will move continuously at twelve miles an hour. Entrances to the moving-platform sort will be placed at every intersecting avenue of the city, and will be capable of conveying 10,000 seated passengers per hour in one direction during the rush hour, as against 13,000 seated passengers on the regular express train service and 7,000 on the five-car local train service of the subway, and as against 10,000 seated passengers per hour on the regular express service and 25,000 on the local service of the elevated subway.

In a recent communication to the Public Service Commission by its chief engineer, Henry B. Roemer, the advantages of the new system are stated to be: First, a vastly increased capacity and means for the passengers; second, absence of the delay incurred in waiting for trains at stations since the train is always there and constantly moving; third, the fact that passengers may board or leave the train at any point at will, and that instead of placing stations one-third of a mile apart, as on the present subway, they may be placed at any street, or indeed at any point, at intermediate points. Furthermore, the subway construction may take the form of a continuous arcade, thus providing an additional business front for display and shopping purposes.

Although the moving platform speed of twelve miles per hour may seem somewhat slow as compared with the running speed of a subway train, the difference is not so great when the distance between the platform and the shorter distance, is entirely in favor of the new system. The Commissioner's engineer finds that for all stations of less than four miles the moving platform is more economical than the subway, because of the conveyance than the local train service, or even quicker than the local and express service combined, for passengers reaching Times Square Station, Port Authority Station, and any other station within the next twenty Street crossings. The moving platform, then, is the local and express trains of the present subway. The local trains ordinarily average, including stops, about 15 miles per hour, and twelve miles an hour during the running of the platform. The moving platform is compared with a platform speed of twelve miles per hour will have the advantages for all distances because there is no train interval to wait and no distance to travel.

To our mind the principal difficulty with such a system will be in accounting passengers to and from one surface to another, that is moving three million an hour faster. Were it not for the great advantages of ample seating accommodation, the convenience and total absence of waiting, or any possibility of avoidance of the present conditions, however, we might anticipate some resistance on the part of the public to make use of, or serve a means of transportation. Experience with escalators, however, has shown that the public will eagerly become familiar with the motion of the escalator. In the case of the Street venture further study is required, but the escalars in the history of transportation are a new and

[illegible]

On those branches of the North-Western Railway that have been electrified, the train mileage has been doubled, the platform capacity of the main station at Newcastle has been increased, and the number of signal movements has been reduced by one-half. These advantages, coupled with the higher rate of acceleration of the electric trains, have enabled these roads to carry a traffic that would have completely swamped the old steam service.

It is of interest to note that in connection with the electrification of a branch of the Midland Railway, tests which are being made of the relative advantages of direct-current and single-phase operation seem to indicate that the latter is more economical than the same service as the direct current, but that the weight of the trains is only slightly greater, and the consumption of energy somewhat less. It is to be hoped that our New York Central and New Haven systems, which are expected to be converted to single-phase alternating current, will make public, for the purpose of comparison upon a common basis, the results of the past two years of electric operation. These figures were given, together with the cost of steam operation of these same sections of road, in connection with a mass of data of a similar nature, of sectional view and interest.

**FRINGS AT THE LOS ANGELES AVIATION MEETING**

**T**HE rises that are to be competed for by heavier-than-air machines at Los Angeles (January 10th to 30th) are the following: \$10,000 for the machine which, carrying two or more persons, breaks all world's records for duration, altitude, distance, and speed.

\$7,500 for the machine making the best general average in all events. \$5,000 for the machine which breaks all previous records and makes fastest circuit of the course. \$5,000 for breaking height record. \$5,000 for breaking endurance record.

[illegible]

With the new law, the  
showing that the person  
suffering from the disease  
has been in contact with  
the person who has been  
shown to have the disease  
and that he has been in  
contact with the person who  
has been shown to have the  
disease.

## ENGINEERING.

These have recently been launched at Bath, Me., the largest wooden vessel ever built in the United States. The "Wronking" as she is called, has a displacement of 1,770 gross tons, with a total length over all of 360 feet. Next to her in size among wooden vessels is the "William L. Douglas" with a gross tonnage of 1,770.

The launch of the battleship "Utah" at the yards of the New York Ship Building Company Camden, N. J. signals, for the time being, the possession by the United States navy of the largest battleship afloat. Both this ship and the Florida belong to the class of the Brooklyn navy yard are of 21,885 tons displacement, and each will carry ten 12 inch guns.

Toward the close of last year the four mile tunnel through the Andes on the line of the new transandean railway between Chile and Argentina was broken through. The tunnel lies on the Chilean side of the boundary line between the two countries and forms the summit of a new single track road. It is expected that the tunnel will be completed and the whole line opened in the spring of the present year.

In his annual report to the Secretary of War Gen Murray Chief of the Coast Artillery announced that the difficult problem of mining the waters of the race at the eastern entrance to Long Island Sound has at last been solved. By using anchors of 1,500 pounds weight mines were successfully anchored at the great depth of 300 feet. A complete submarine equipment for the race's will have been put in place.

The British Congo section of the Capetown-Cairo Rail way 124 1/2 miles in length was formally opened on December 14th. It runs from the Cape Colony Company's terminus at Fikien Road to the southern terminus of the Congo Independent State. This completes a continuous British line of 3,147 miles north from Cape Town. Work is in progress on an additional 180 miles which will probably be completed in the autumn of 1919.

The "Yaguand" of the British navy which has now undergone her trials with a maximum high power speed of a fraction under 18 knots, the fourth draughtboat to be completed for the British navy. Her displacement is 19,200 tons. She carries ten 12 inch guns disposed similarly to those of the original draughtboat. The vessel has six on the center line and two on either broadside. On the full power trial the coal consumption per shaft horse power was 1.63 pounds and the main steam consumption was less than 14 pounds per shaft horse power.

The United States Engineer Corps are engaged in surveying the route of the proposed Atlantic Coast Canal from Boston Mass. to Key West Fla. The scheme calls for a canal from Boston to the coast through Long Island Sound and across New York Bay thence across New Jersey to the Delaware River thence to Norfolk on Chesapeake Bay and thence to the sounds of North Carolina and Beaufort Inlet. The law providing for this survey calls for surveys for a 35-foot canal from Boston to Beaufort and a 15-foot canal from Beaufort to Key West. The estimated cost is \$100,000,000.

To facilitate traffic across the huge Colorado cut and to carry certain air and water mains a highway and penion bridge with a span of 800 feet has been built across the cut at Empire. Most of the material for the bridge was found on hand at Panama. The stiffening truss was built of 12 and 18 inch timbers and the towers were built up of 8 x 12 and 5 x 10 crosswood plus timber bolted up in 16-foot lengths. The main cables 870 feet in length are 3 1/2 inches in diameter bound to a tensile strength of 170,000 pounds to the square inch.

The managements of several railroads have followed the lead of James J. Hill in improving upon the form of the road for construction of the railroads. The small and they are using for this purpose the locomotive train. One of the latest of these equipped by the Pennsylvania State College is being operated on a division of the Pennsylvania line and other instructions are being followed in route through Iowa and Nebraska. The return to the railroads for the outlay for this enterprise will consist in the increased amount of freight brought to their lines as the result of more intelligent operation.

The introduction of the articulated compound type has made it possible for the railroads to greatly increase the effectiveness of existing locomotives which have become unequal to the work demanded. The Baldwin Locomotive Works of Philadelphia has a new consolidation engine for the Great Northern Railway by extending the boiler shell to include a superheater and feed water tank, and placing beneath the entire boiler a separate low-pressure cylinder. It is estimated that the coal consumption per ton mile will be reduced by nearly 50 per cent. 10 per cent being due to superheating, 15 per cent to feed-water heating, and 25 per cent to superheating.

## ELECTRICITY.

The Nobel prize for physics has been divided this year, one-half being given to Guglielmo Marconi for his development of wireless telegraphy and the other half to Prof. P. K. Drans of Strasbourg University, Germany, for his work in radio-activity.

Experiments are under way to establish wireless telegraph communication between Japan and San Francisco by way of Hawaii. Also in telegraph direct from Japan to San Francisco. So far these efforts have been unsuccessful although telegrams have been received in Japan from Hawaii. However the transmission was too uncertain to be of any commercial value.

The scout cruisers "Birmingham" and "Salem" were sent recently on a cruise to test the efficiency of their wireless telegraph system and that of the station at Great Rock Mass. The cruisers were to attempt to maintain communication with each other over a distance of a thousand miles and with the land station over a distance of three thousand miles. Owing to severe storms the test was not very successful. Doubtless further tests soon will be undertaken under more favorable conditions.

A new steam-electric locomotive is being built in England. It comprises a steam turbine which operates a dynamo supplying current to four series wound motors. The engine is being designed to haul express trains and will be tested in actual service so as to show its efficiency as compared with the ordinary locomotive. It is pointed out that turbo-generators have proved so efficient in stationary plants that a similar system would very probably prove to be of value on railways to replace steam locomotives.

A writer in *Engineering* (London) calls attention to the water power of Ireland which is going to waste. A company is now being formed to exploit these power resources. The Killfinn River Falls comprise the whole Falls with 10,000 horsepower. The Alderney Falls with 35,000 horsepower. The Laxa River Falls would produce 30,000 horsepower. The Bog Falls 50,000 to 70,000 horsepower. The Lough Erne Falls 100,000 horsepower. With all this hydraulic power available Ireland would seem to be an ideal spot for the generation of electricity particularly for use in electro-chemical industries.

A great report from England speaks of a remarkable development in wireless telephony which will make it possible within a few weeks to carry on communication between Paris and New York. As the revolution in England (London) calls attention to the water power of Ireland which is going to waste. A company is now being formed to exploit these power resources. The Killfinn River Falls comprise the whole Falls with 10,000 horsepower. The Alderney Falls with 35,000 horsepower. The Laxa River Falls would produce 30,000 horsepower. The Bog Falls 50,000 to 70,000 horsepower. The Lough Erne Falls 100,000 horsepower. With all this hydraulic power available Ireland would seem to be an ideal spot for the generation of electricity particularly for use in electro-chemical industries.

A new type of car has been built for a line in Illinois with an in the car the conductor is eliminated. The cars are of the passenger-enter type but may be entered only from the front platform where the fare is deposited in the cash box under the motorist's eye. The cash box is provided with a glass receiver in which the fares may be examined before being dropped from the tilting bottom into a locked cash drawer. The cash box may be taken to the other platform when the car is on its return trip and this has made it necessary to provide certain precautions to prevent coins from dropping out in case the box is turned upside down and to lock the cash drawer when the box is removed from the support. The box is also provided with a fare-counting machine.

An interesting comparison of the New York and Paris subway systems was published in a recent number of the *Electric Railway Journal*. The following conclusions were reached. In the Paris system the average fare is 17 cents with a minimum fare of 15 cents at certain hours of the day. The Paris line is operated by the Electric Company of Paris. The network of lines, and when this network is completed a passenger may travel from any quarter of the city proper to any other quarter for a single fare. Our system on the other hand has a much higher fare, through the possible ride is longer. Allowing for difference in purchasing power of money the charge per mile for the average ride is from one and one-half to two times as great in Paris as in New York. The Paris line is underlaid in areas fourteen miles from the center of traffic as against three or four miles in Paris and a greater speed is attainable. The average speed in Paris is 12 miles an hour. The average speed in New York on the express tracks between the Brooklyn Bridge and 92nd Street is 12 miles an hour. The average speed on the local tracks is 10 miles an hour. The average speed for both express and local trains for the entire system is 10 miles an hour.

## SCIENCE.

Former President Roosevelt's African hunting trip will result in enlarging the Smithsonian collection by 6,000 skins. The collection consists of hides of 343 large mammals, 1,000 small mammals and 4,000 birds. Human skulls picked up along the line of the ancient slave trail are also included.

Prof. Haeppel, Count von Zeppelin's mathematical and meteorological adviser in New York. He states that two airplanes will be used by Count von Zeppelin with a view to exploring the entire region within the Arctic Circle. One will probably be left at a relief station in Spitzbergen while the other is on its journey to the two helping in touch by means of wireless telegraphy. The German government will undoubtedly aid the undertaking financially.

Charcoal, graphite and diamonds are only different forms of one chemical element—carbon. Hilbert Rosenfeld has been regarded as infallible but it has apparently been found in experiments which were described by the Italian physicist La Rosa at the last international congress of applied chemistry. By subjecting very pure sugar charcoal to the intense heat of the singing electric arc La Rosa obtained a compact mass of graphite. When this mass was cooled quickly minute transparent crystals appeared which were proved to be diamonds by their form, chemical composition and physical properties.

Dr. W. von Oetzelhausen has invented a method of converting ordinary coal gas into a very light gas which is entirely colorless. The method consists in passing the gas through a series of chemical processes consisting in decomposing and removing all of the heavy hydrocarbons and nearly all of the methane and converting the carbon dioxide into the lighter carbon monoxide. The resultant product is an almost odorless gas which contains more than 90 per cent of hydrogen and has a density of 0.2. The density of ordinary coal gas is 0.41 and that of pure hydrogen is 0.067. The lifting power of the new gas is about one ounce avoirdupois per cubic foot. The buoyancy of coal gas is 0.7 ounce and that of commercial hydrogen is 1.1 ounce per cubic foot. The balloons of the Aeronautical Society of Anhalt is to be filled with the new gas.

A kitten about six months old was taken to a house a few miles distant from its birthplace and reared in a room and tenderly cared for during a week and then released. It was supposed to have been come habituated to its new surroundings. It returned to its old home on the day of its release. The sense of locality and direction was exhibited still more strikingly by an old cat which was stolen and carried a distance of 100 miles from its home. The cat was imprisoned but made its escape and in a few days reappeared in a pliable state at the home of its former master, which was separated from that of the kitten by a high wooded ridge.

A writer in *Kosmos* states that he possesses a tame magpie to which he has affectionately offered an extinguished cigar stump. The bird began to tear the stump apart but apparently changing its mind proceeded to nibble the stump held in its beak over every part of its body including the inside of the wings in a very careful and methodical manner. The experiment was subsequently repeated many times always with the same result. The magpie is so fond of tobacco that it is repeatedly snatched a lighted cigar from his hand against his will. It also picks up fallen cigar ashes and strews them over its feathers. He thinks that the action is due to the fact that the bird is attracted and are determined by alchemy or inherited instinct. In the wild state some unidentified plant must have been used instead of tobacco as an insecticide. The magpie is a very intelligent animal and a questionable instance of the use of tools by a lower animal.

A great number of elements was studied by Madame Curie but with the exceptions of radium, uranium and thorium all were found to be less active than the second of a radioactivity greater than one hundredth of that of metallic uranium. Curie found a similar series of examinations by a more sensitive method and derived from the same source of radium, thorium and lead are radioactive but Kater and Geitel have traced the radioactivity observed in lead to a small admixture of radium. P. I. a plutonium and Radium have been found in the same case of a great many substances. Their experiments confirm Curie's results in regard to the radioactivity of potassium and rubidium. This radioactivity however is very small being in the case of potassium only 1/100 of the activity of the  $\beta$  radiation of uranium oxide. In this case the radioactivity cannot be attributed to impurity as the potassium compounds examined were derived from the same source of radium. They included commercial compounds potassium salts obtained from molasses distillery wastes and wool wash tanks. Stanniferous potash rock etc. One specimen was obtained from the ash of a Brazilian plant and the second came from the Trol and the third from Chile.



# A UNIVERSAL VISE.

BY JACQUES BOYER.

Vises usually occupy fixed positions and serve merely as clamps by which the wood or other material is prevented from moving while the workman is compelled to adapt the position of his tools and his body to circumstances as best he may. The ordinary vise no matter what its purpose for which it is designed consists of two jaws one fixed the other movable. The latter is moved toward and away from the former by a long square threaded screw which turns in a nut in the fixed jaw and in a roller in the movable jaw and the movement is opposed by a flat spring which takes up the lost motion.

The universal vise invented by P. Glogon is mounted on a ball and socket joint which allows it and the object held by it to be turned in a y direction so that the work can be done more conveniently and in a favorable light. When the vise has been set in the desired position the ball and socket joint is locked and held motionless by a double ended jaw operated by a wire forming a loop in which the workman's foot is placed.

As the accompanying photograph indicates the universal vise is designed primarily for the use of shoemakers. It can be employed with advantage in shaping sewing needles and almost every other operation involved in the making and repairing of shoes. The shoe and the standard which carries it can be turned into any position and instantly immobilized without touching the screw of the vise so that shaping can be done much better than is possible with a rotating vertical standard as the sole and the heel can be placed in the position most favorable for working.

The apparatus is a very simple and comprises only five large parts and two pins.

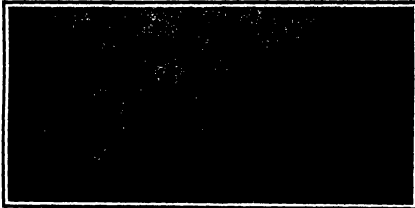
The Pacific coast lumber men have taken the initiative in an important step for the promotion of

proper and conservative use of their timber supply. Practically all of the large manufacturers of lumber in the States of Oregon and Washington have entered into an agreement to manufacture odd as well as even lengths in scoring, slash and similar planing-mill products. Heretofore it has been customary to manufacture these products in even lengths only. Now it is proposed to trim the manufactured lumber to lengths of odd numbers as well as even numbers of feet. Under

the finishing material in place. Because of the conservative element which enters into this question, the United States Forest Service has been recommending the adoption of odd lengths for some time past. The Portland office of the Service has recently made an investigation of the actual amount of waste material incident to the manufacture of even lengths only and these figures show that under the old system the refuse burner consumed about two per cent of the total amount of the important forms of

planing-mill products which are manufactured from Douglas fir and other important forest species in the States of Oregon and Washington. When it is considered that about 750,000,000 feet of planing mill products are manufactured annually in the two States mentioned above this two per cent assumes important proportions. The Forest Service is authority for the statement that 15,000,000 board feet of high-grade lumber can be saved annually in Oregon and Washington by the manufacture of planing-mill products into lengths of odd feet as well as even. It would require the yearly growth of timber on approximately 30,000 acres of average timber land to produce the amount of lumber which this annual waste represents. The manufacturer is convinced that the waste is unnecessary. His greatest trouble now lies with a sufficient conviction on the part of the consumer that odd lengths can be used as economically as even lengths.

The new Mexican Pacific American Railway has already been opened states the American Machinist and the line is in active operation from San Jeronimo on the Tehuantepec Railway to Tapachula in Chiapas. The extension of that line will be continued to Port of San Benito on the Pacific coast. There is also planned a new railway passing through parts of the States of Coahuila and Chihuahua, about 375 miles long.



THE UNIVERSAL VISE

the old system a considerable portion of the lumber which came to the shaping machine was wasted and this action has been taken in order to save that waste. Considerable opposition to this innovation has arisen among retailers and consumers. The retailer contends that it is impossible for him to dispose of odd length material because of the common practice in the construction of wooden buildings claiming that the initial saving of the manufacturer is transferred to the consumer. This is denied however because of the proportionally small amount of odd length material which will occur under the new system and because of the latter day practice of laying sub-floors of rough lumber and sheathing on the sides of the house before putting

# MECHANICAL BOWLING MACHINE.

BY THE ENGLISH CORRESPONDENT OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

Numerous efforts have been made from time to time to devise a mechanical apparatus for reproducing human action in the delivery of a ball in various games here such as required as in baseball cricket tennis and so forth. The problem however is somewhat abstruse inasmuch as in bowling success is largely dependent upon the brains of the bowler who resorts to varying subterfuges to perplex his opponent such as varying the pace swerve and break of the ball while in the air or after it has struck the ground. To reproduce these peculiarities by mechanical effort is no easy matter but an English engineer

Mr. D. D. Faxon M. M. M. of Birmingham has perfected an ingenious device for fulfilling the desired purpose.

As may be seen the apparatus comprises a tripod of steel tubing firmly fixed to the ground by means of specially designed anchors which correspond to the body of the bowler. The ball rests freely in a semi-spherical cup or hand carried at the outer end of a lever about the length of the human arm with which it corresponds the lower end of this lever being pivoted to the body at the shoulder.

When the machine is at rest the arm remains in a vertical position and the bowling operation is produced by pressing this arm backward into a horizontal position with the ball resting in the cup-shaped hand. Directly the arm is released it flies toward its normal position describing therein a quarter of a circle the ball being propelled through the air with varying velocity as desired toward its objective. This forward movement of the moving arm is produced by the

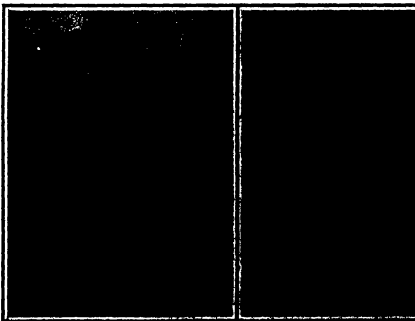
action of a strong spiral spring one end of which is attached to the moving lever a short distance above the shoulder while the other end is attached to the body by an adjustable tightening screw. By means of this screw the momentum imparted to the arm and consequently the velocity of the ball can be regulated merely by altering the tension of the spiral spring.

A ball delivered in this manner though fast or slow according to variation of spring tension is a straight-forward delivery—it possesses none of that swerve spin or gyration causing it to break to the right or

left when coming into contact with the ground and which is so baffling to the batsman. This requirement is fulfilled in an ingenious manner. The center of the cup-shaped receptacle or palm of the mechanical hand has a roller drum with its axis running transversely with the bottom of the cup and having its periphery projecting slightly above the spherical surface of the palm so that when the ball is inserted it rests upon this drum. The cup itself is fixed into a bon-shaped casing of such dimensions that the external diameter of the cup will fit against the four internal sides of its containing box.

Attached to the base of this outer box and at right angles therewith is a hollow spindle or tube mounted on a bearing which is rigid with the end of the arm and in which it can be revolved. It will be observed, however that the axis on which the drum revolves is at right angles with the hollow spindle on which the box and cup are mounted the spindle itself being at right angles to the drum's periphery. This spindle has a groove over which passes a hand the ends of which hold down a recess in the arm in which a short distance of its pivot with the body and then the hand is stopped at a feigned rest giving velocity one on each side of the mechanism of the ball so on either side sufficiently far apart to enable the arm to swing independently.

When the arm is back it is held in position by means of a spring which is pressed forward by the hand, by means of which the spring is released and the arm is propelled forward with the ball in the cup.



Inserting the ball in the "hand" of the machine.

The machine in the act of throwing the ball.

A MECHANICAL BOWLING MACHINE.

# AN AUTOMATIC RAILWAY SAFETY STOP.

BY DR. ALFRED GRADENWITZ

Since the terrible catastrophe on the Berlin Wiesbaden and Unterdenkum railway caused by a train running by a stopping signal, the German railway administrations have been giving increased attention to automatic braking devices for preventing the recurrence of such accidents. The apparatus illustrated in the accompanying figures has been adopted provisionally, and is now being tested out. Its object is to warn the engineer and fireman by visible and sound signals and set the brakes, all being done simultaneously.

The safety device consists of contact levers mounted on the locomotive, and pedal contacts arranged on the track. The former are always arranged on the right-hand side of the engine, and are actuated by a permanently tightened spiral spring. In the interior of the cab is arranged in a conspicuous position the repeating box, which is intended for indicating to the driver: (1) whether the track is disengaged, (2) which signal has been passed over, or (3) that the apparatus is out of order, the various indications being signalled on a red background inside a white frame, immediately before the engineer's eyes.

Above this repeating box is arranged a recording box, which mainly contains a clockwork, which is actuated if the train runs by some signal. This clockwork sets a roller and paper tape rotating and thus causes a dash or dot to be inscribed. Furthermore, the engine driver is free to produce, on the same paper tape, before passing the signal, an annular mark, showing the signal to have been duly attended to. These marks may serve as useful records in the case of law-suits.

On the roof of the driver's stand is mounted an alarm siren, the howling sound of which is readily distinguished from that of ordinary locomotive whistles. The same alarm is used as a braking signal in the case of brakeless goods trains. On the running board of the locomotive is arranged the brake-cock casing, containing, in addition to the brake-cock, a click for tightening the spring above mentioned, and, accordingly, the whole apparatus. This click, in turn, is connected through the draw-bar 10 with the contact levers 6. These two contact levers 6 are sliding over the contacts pull downward the draw-bar 10 and thus set the apparatus working. The apparatus is

actuated only in the event of both levers being struck simultaneously. This arrangement thus insures thorough reliability of operation.

At each distant signal there is arranged a single

pair of track contacts, and at the main signal, two pairs, situated about 30 m. from the main signal, so connected with the signals as to be lifted when the signal is closed, thus protruding beyond the rail head and coming into contact with the sliding levers of the locomotive apparatus. In the event of the signal being drawn, they are located below the rail head, so as to avoid any contact.

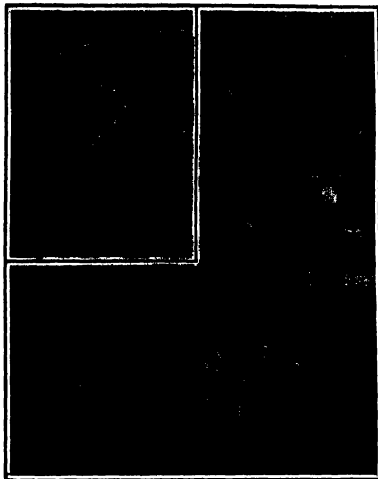
In addition to these stationary pedals movable pedals are provided which are readily fitted behind fish plates, with a view to warn and stop trains at any point of the track.

The working of the apparatus is as follows. On the contact levers passing over the track contacts, the draw bar 10 is pulled down, thus disengaging the click. The apparatus is merely operated by the spiral spring, and as the contact levers perform no work outside of disengaging the tightening apparatus, any heavy shocks are prevented, and the wear and tear is reduced considerably.

On passing over a distant signal, the contact levers strike only a single pair of pedals situated on the track, thus closing an electric circuit, by the action of which the alarm siren is sounded, while a disk bearing the inscription "distant signal" appears in the cab signal box and a dash is marked on the paper tape in the repeating box. The brake cock is opened at the same time and the train is stopped automatically. Owing to the automatic disengagement of the brakes, the driver is in a position himself to throw the apparatus out of gear, and to continue his journey.

On a closed main signal being passed over, the contact with the first pair of pedals produces an effect, as above stated, during a very short time, which effect is reinforced immediately by the second pair of track contacts. In fact, this second contact further disengages the click, thus opening completely the braking cock and producing a rapid braking. At the repeating box appears a disk with the inscription "main signal," while at the same time a dot is marked in the recording box. In addition to this, a checking lead is broken. The second contact also causes the apparatus to become locked up, so that the engine driver is no longer in a position himself to throw the apparatus out of gear, before the train guard has received the signal.

(Continued on page 55.)



Upper engraving shows contact apparatus in operation. The lower engraving shows contact of single lever without effect.

Tripping device in operation.

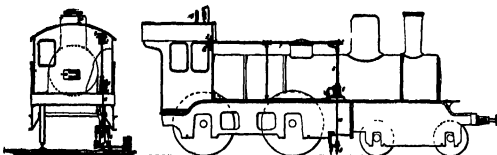
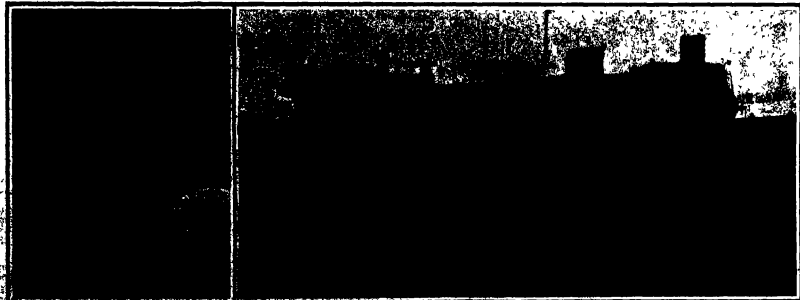


Diagram showing arrangement of track and engine contacts, and connections to sight and sound warning devices in cab.



At the engine stand past a danger signal, track contacts display a signal in the cab and blow a warning whistle.

Engine locomotive fitted with automatic safety device.

# FRICITION AT RAILWAY CURVES.

BY J. F. SPRINGER

When two material surfaces are in contact with each other, there are two distinct methods of with drawing points of contact from each other. Consider such points to be extremely small plane areas. Thus, let Fig. 1 represent a higher magnified vertical view of two contacting points. *AB* represents the infinitesimal plane area. (First) The surfaces may be with drawn from each other by moving *C* or *D* (or both simultaneously). In a direction perpendicular to the plane represented by *AB*. This gives rise to what is termed *rolling friction*. (Second) Withdrawal may be effected by moving *C* or *D* (or both simultaneously) in any one of the directions lying in the plane represented by *AB*. Thus, the movement may be along *AB*. The direction is immaterial, provided it is in the tiny plane of contact. This method of withdrawal gives rise to *sliding friction*.

New material surfaces are not perfectly smooth. When in contact under pressure, the projecting particles interlock with each other—as idealized in Fig. 2. It can readily be seen that movement in the directions *C* or *D* would tend to shear off the large projections 1, 2, 3, 4, while movement in the directions *B*, *F* would tend to shear off merely the interlocking protuberances of the large projections. That is to say, sliding friction involves abrasion of the principal projections, while rolling friction releases merely the projections on projections. Consequently, it is not difficult to comprehend that sliding and rolling frictions belong to different orders of magnitude. In fact, the one kind of friction is a most important consideration in mechanical engineering, while the other is usually negligible.

It is easily seen that the movement along *AB* produces what we all understand by sliding friction, but perhaps some may hesitate at considering perpendicular withdrawal as rolling friction. Consider Fig. 3. Here the wheel is rolled in the direction given by the arrow *C*. The rotation of the wheel is indicated by the arrow *D*. The change of the instantaneous center of rotation from *A'* to the next point *B'* (See article "Some Principles of Ball Bearing Design" in *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN* for November 1907, p. 1200) is marked by the change of *A* moves perpendicularly away from *A'*. Likewise *B* approaches *B'* perpendicularly. And so on throughout the roll—the points of contact approach and recede from each other perpendicularly to the surface of contact.

Now it will not be very hard to see that any movement of withdrawal that is oblique is really a compound of the perpendicular and parallel movements. We may provisionally assume that so far as it is perpendicular it is a rolling friction, and that in so far as it is parallel it is a sliding one. That there are such compound frictions may be seen by consulting the article to which reference has already been made.

Now two very important economic questions arise in connection with friction. First, friction wears the contacting parts. This is a matter of very considerable significance. Second, friction consumes power in performing this abrasion. In some cases, this becomes a matter of still greater importance. However, they go hand in hand—useless destruction of material and waste of the power used in accomplishing this destruction.

These two factors have, perhaps, been more or less recognized almost from the beginning of the age of machinery. But it is only in comparatively recent years that their vital importance has begun to come to the fore. In every direction in the machine world this is testified to at the present time by the introduction of ball and roller bearings. These serve—with more or less perfect efficiency—as an exchange of sliding for rolling friction. In the railway world, the antifriction movement is attained by the fact that large outlays are being made to eliminate the friction at curves. Reduction of friction has been in view. But the railroads certainly have in view the economic gain to be derived from the avoidance of that excessive wear on rail and wheel which occurs when rounding a curve, and the money saved in saving the steam power wasted in effecting the wear and tear.

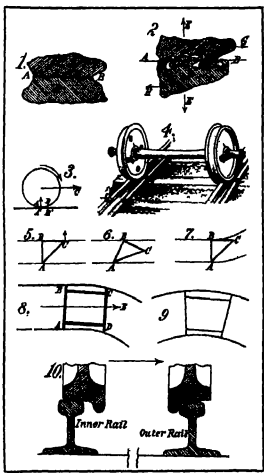
That railway curves give rise to a very excessive amount of friction may be understood from the amount of wear occurring at a certain curve in the "subway" of the Boston Elevated Railway. Carbonized rails were replaced at a certain point, on the average, every forty-four days. The amount of wearing down on the heads of these rails was about three-quarters of an inch. As to what was the cause of this excessive wearing, there was no exact information. But it must have been very considerable. Three-quarters of an inch was not worn off the rail head and the corresponding effect on the wheels and trucks.

What happened at this curve is happening in

greater or less degree, upon all curves, wherever located. It is a matter of interest and importance, then, to consider more particularly the causes of friction at railway curves.

Three prominent factors enter. The first causal factor arises out of two facts. The outer rail of a curved track is longer than the inner one. And yet the two must be covered in the same time as the other. Then the wheels and axles are so combined that two wheels and the corresponding axle operate as a single piece. Consequently, the one wheel is compelled to rotate at precisely the same speed as the other. In rounding a curve, however, a greater distance is covered by the one. This conflict of rotational velocities between the two wheels results in slippage, and this of course means wear of metal and loss of power. It is to be observed that this friction occurs irrespective of the speed of the train. For the difference in length of rail between the two sides of the track remains precisely the same, and this controls the amount of slippage. The seriousness of the friction is accentuated, however, by the speed.

It has been proposed so to arrange the wheels and axle that this slippage could not occur. This might be done in two ways. Both wheels might be rotatably mounted, the axle being kept "dead"; or, the one



wheel might be made integral with the axle, and the other rotatably mounted. That either method would be effective can scarcely be doubted, but practical railroad people do not seem to take kindly to wheels mounted rotatably on an axle.

Whether they are justified or not, there is another friction factor which enters and which is of far greater weight. In order to get this clearly before the mind it will be well, perhaps, to consider the action of a group of flanged wheels on a railway track. Suppose we take a single pair of wheels and the corresponding axle. These wheels are flanged on the inside, as in Fig. 4. Now it will readily be grasped that the axle must be kept perpendicular to the direction of the rails. In the case of the single pair of wheels, how will this be maintained? The two planes of the flanges at the places of contact with the inside of the head of the rail no doubt give some assistance. But this is practically negligible for the reason that a tight fit is not permissible. In fact, a very slight disturbance would be competent to destroy the perpendicularity of the axle, and a straight track at that.

Consequently, some additional means must be utilized if we attempt to solve this problem by constructing a truck of three wheels; all being maintained unalterable in their relative position to each other we should not expect. In Fig. 5, the truck *ABC*

represents such an arrangement, the wheel contacts being supposed to be at the vertices *A*, *B*, and *C*. This truck would no doubt withstand any tendency operating to throw it in the direction of the arrow at *O*. But the tendency in the opposite direction would give rise to the situation in Fig. 6. If at no other time such a tendency would arise at a curve in the track when the rail corresponding to *BO* loaded away from the truck as a whole. This condition of affairs is represented in Fig. 7.

The lowest number of wheels which when combined in a truck are competent to maintain themselves upon a track is four. The four-wheeled truck is consequently the unit that must be dealt with in considering the friction arising at curves.

Now when such a truck rounds a curve, the outer wheel of the forward axle is the one which first meets the change of direction. This is the curve leading in Fig. 8, where the wheel at *C* has begun to respond to the curvature. The wheel at *D*, because the rail curves away from it, will tend to be relieved. The impetus of the truck is in the direction *BO*. Consequently, there is a severe grind at *O*. And this condition obtains through out the curve.

No doubt if, during the time of rounding the curve, the axles of the truck could always lie in radii of the curve, as shown in Fig. 9, the friction arising from the rigidity of the truck formation would be largely reduced, if not entirely eliminated. Investors seeking to attack this problem must remember that the arrangement of the truck cannot be feasible. The change from the rectangular form to that of the isosceles trapezoid must be sufficiently instantaneous. It must not go further than requirements demand. Further, conditions must be reversible. The truck bending in the opposite direction. Altogether, this is a very pretty problem.

Another factor which enters is one pointed out by Edward South. The track of the wheel is not horizontal, but inclined, as in Fig. 10. On the outside wheel of the forward axle the climbing tendency resulting from the effort of the truck to move it a straight line forces the wheel flange to some such position as that shown in the figure. This is aided, no doubt, by the fact that thus greater speed is attained. Reverse conditions on the inner side of the curve cooperate in the slowing of the whole axle outward, because thus a low speed is maintained on the inner side of the truck. Now the result of this slowing is to bring a very steep portion of the outer wheel in contact with the head of the rail. There arises, then, a severe wear action. This is a factor of no small importance of all the factors giving rise to friction at curves. It is due to a combination of the causes producing the other two.

Death of William A. Eddy.

William A. Eddy, well known throughout the country for his many kite-flying experiments, died recently after an illness of several months. Mr. Eddy's life was spent in the study of kite flying, to which art he contributed much that is valuable. Although a self-taught man, he did much useful work, particularly in kite photography. Latterly he was very much interested in aeronautics, to which his kite investigations naturally drew him.

Dr. Cuvier of Vienna, who has undertaken a study of the chemical structure of cannabish, the active principle of hashish or Indian hemp, gives the following graphic description of the peculiar intoxication which hashish produces. "It is as if the man flung himself every thought that passed through the brain, and every bodily movement is a source of joy. The hashish user does not experience the hind of pleasure which is produced by the gratification of bodily appetites. He feels the joy of one who hears good news, of the miser counting his gold, of the lucky gambler, or the successful seeker after fame. He is the sport of every impulse of the senses, the force of the thought is directed by the slightest suggestion of feeling. A word or a picture suffices to suggest new images and ideas, with marvelous quickness and precision. For this reason the Oriental hashish smokers give no thought up to the exterior of his life, take care to remove from his presence everything that could disturb him, and, as if he were a child, he is in a state of complete isolation. For the accomplishment of this object, he makes use of every means which the situation of his life affords. At his disposal, in his hands, instruments for his work, under the spell of such words and voluptuous dances, he enjoys a delirium in which he feels himself transported to the paradise of the Orient, the garden of the paradises of the East."

## THE SPEED OF AN AIRPLANET PROPELLER.

The idea of propelling a gas machine weighing half a ton at the speed of an express train is a feat of a fan seems absurd on the face of it. One is apt to discount the power of a fan. Air is such an intangible, hesperandous, substantial fluid, that it seems impossible to obtain sufficient velocity to make it do the work of a machine of any appreciable weight. Yet this is what a flying machine propeller must do. The result is obtained by making the propeller of such size and drive it at such speed that it is able to drive a stationary, the propeller will generate a current of air flowing at the rate of a hurricane. We know something about the power of heavy gales, and when we consider that an aeromotor propeller is capable of producing a moderate-sized cyclone, it is easier to conceive of its exerting sufficient force to drive a 1,000-pound aeroplane at a fast clip. Flying machines have obtained a speed of over fifty miles per hour. In order to do this, the propellers must have been driven fast enough to have produced a current of air considerably more than this velocity, because the fluidity and elasticity of the air is sufficient to cause a considerable "slip" of the propellers, which reduces their efficiency to a large extent, depending upon the design of the propeller. Our front-page illustration this week shows Mr. Hubert Latham's "Antoinette" monoplane undergoing a test of its propeller. The propeller is revolving at the rate of about 1,000 revolutions per minute, which is about the rate of the average electric fan, but when we consider that the propeller describes a circle 54 feet in diameter, it is not surprising that it is set in motion by the machine can be conceived. At a test made in England last fall, a thrust of 585 pounds was obtained. Supposing the motor to develop only 100 horse-power, instead of the 58 at which it is rated, this is equivalent to but 5.8 pounds per horse-power, which is about all the average propeller will give. A prominent American experimenter has lately obtained 125 pounds thrust with a 50-horse-power motor, but in this instance a large 5-foot propeller making but 400 R. P. M. was used. Such a propeller is more efficient and produces a greater thrust per horse-power. In the instance shown, it was also of a special form. The illustration shows Mr. Farman at one side of the machine, and Mr. Curtiss at the other. It is curious to note that the hairy circle produced by the rapidly rotating propeller is of a pale blue or white dark bands. These are shadows cast on the blades. The shadows are, of course, intermittent, as they fall upon the blades only as they come within the range of the shadow. The illustration suggests what was submitted to us some time ago by one of the readers of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN. He proposed to show the shadow of a man on a string. The proposition appeared absurd at first, but he soon demonstrated that the complete shadow, showing a perfect profile of the man's face, could be shown on the string, provided the string were weighted at one end and whirled around so that it formed a hairy patch of reflected light similar to that produced by the propeller blades in our front-page illustration. The persistence of vision of our eyes accounts for the halo in the first place and for the shadow as well, because both are intermittent, as an instantaneous photograph would show.

## The Public Bath of New York City.

In a paper presented before Section 1 of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, at the Boston meeting, December 28th, 1909, entitled "The Public Bath System of New York City," by William H. Hays, Ph.D., the following facts were presented. The Brooklyn borough of New York City, some interesting facts were stated showing the increase and utility of this recent public institution for the promotion of the public health.

Prior to the consolidation of the surrounding cities into Greater New York there was no interior public bath. All were located along the river front as floating baths. The first interior public bath in Manhattan borough was established on Rivington Street on the east side of the city March 23rd, 1901, and has been the most crowded of any bath, on the average, for the year.

Newer baths opened on Pitkin and Montrose Avenues, Brooklyn borough, have had more bathers in hot weather than any others. It is stated that on one hot summer day 9,000 bathers used them. A third public bath was opened in Manhattan on November 23rd, 1904, in West 12th Street. At the present time there are seven in Brooklyn, twelve in Manhattan, and one each in the boroughs of Queens and Bronx. In the Brooklyn borough during 1908, 5,000,000 persons patronized their new interior public baths. In 1909, up to December 1st, 1,715,000 persons used all the baths in this borough, showing an increase over the previous year.

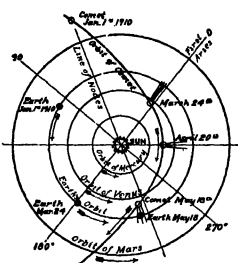
In Brooklyn, a small change in the bath, a seat for a bath of soap and a seat for a towel, had an astonishing effect. It came for the use of the bath, "The Bath" was very much of the same kind as the bath in some

later bath houses swimming pools have been built fifty feet long by thirty-five feet wide, said to be the largest in the city. Near both houses have a gymnasium built in the second story above the bath house proper. This has been found to be a most useful adjunct. Mr. Hays suggested still further that roof gardens be built above the gymnasium. He also recommended that there should be a greater extension of facilities for public bathing, particularly the establishment of a great public bath by the sea modelled after the baths at Bournemouth and Manchester, North in Massachusetts. At Coney Island on city property such public bath structures could be constructed as would be remunerative to the city and yet would supply a pressing public want. Mr. Hays further recommends the establishment of a separate bureau of public baths and gymnasiums, with uniform pay to attendants and officers, to cover the whole city. The city should have full control of the proposed seaside baths, as they are intended for the entire city and not wholly for the borough in which they are located.

## RELATIVE POSITIONS OF HALLEY'S COMET, THE EARTH, AND THE SUN.

At the top of the accompanying drawing the comet is shown in its position for January 1st, 1910, outside of the orbit of Mars. At the left the earth is moving in its orbit away from the comet, the distance between them being about 115 million miles.

On March 24th the earth will reach the position shown in the drawing, while the comet will have moved to a point on the opposite side of the sun. During the period (January 1st to March 24th) the comet will be visible, with the telescope, in the western evening sky, but on March 24th, when passing back



## RELATIVE POSITIONS OF HALLEY'S COMET, THE EARTH, AND THE SUN.

of the sun, will be invisible for several days. The distance between the earth and comet at this time will be 165,000,000 miles.

When the comet next emerges from the rays of the sun it will have shifted to the morning sky, rising before dawn, and for the first time becoming an interesting object to the naked-eye observer. The earth and comet will now rapidly approach each other and the latter will grow increasingly brilliant.

About April 20th it will pass its nearest point to the sun, as shown in the drawing, and on May 18th it will again disappear in the sun's rays—this time, however, passing in the front of the great lumina. It is predicted that the nucleus will cross the sun's disk about five minutes of a degree from its center, thus furnishing an opportunity to observe whether the nucleus is opaque to the sun's rays.

The transit will not be visible in the United States as it will occur after sunset here.

On the night of May 18th the earth and comet will run past each other and the earth will probably see a ring through the tail of the comet. They will be only 12,000,000 miles apart. After May 18th the comet will attain its maximum of splendor in the evening sky, and in a few days thereafter its glory will rapidly fade.

## The Current Supplement.

Dr. Alfred Gradenwitz opens the current SUPPLEMENT, No. 1778, with an article on a snow plow employed on a Swiss railway. Some interesting information on submarine sound signals is presented. Mr. Gradenwitz writes exhaustively on friction drums and brakes. The employment of electrolysis in chemical manufacture is made the subject of an instructive article by Prof. R. Lenzlin. Mr. Gradenwitz describes a new gas radiator system. One of the most important questions in connection with aerial

navigation is the provision of suitable places of refuge for the enormous dirigible balloons of which Germany is the proud possessor.

The problem is discussed in a copiously illustrated article by our German aeronautic correspondent, Dr. Robert Amory writes on coffee as a beverage and describes a new method of preparing it for the table. The great guano deposits of Peru are described and illustrated. It is also summarized the electrical and chemical applications of bakelite.

## Correspondence.

## THE END OF THE "DANIEL TENEYER"

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:— In looking over some old files of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN to-day, I found in the issue of March 12th, 1897, reference of the building of the old merchant ship "Daniel J. Teneyer," built at Newburyport, Mass., by John J. Courter, Jr.

This item, in connection with the storm now raging, carries me back to eleven years ago today, when the "Daniel J. Teneyer" was lost off the coast of Spain. In the disastrous November gale. The wreckage was strewn for miles along the shores of Biscay and Harborside. A portion of the stern containing the mainmast was thrown upon the beach. I picked up some of the finer finish of the cabin, and have made several pieces of furniture of it, which are prized quite highly by the owners. This is the last I have heard of the career of the ocean ship which so proudly braved the storms of last so many years.

Perhaps some of your readers may be interested to know where the "Daniel J. Teneyer" laid her bones to rest.

Ben View, Mass.

## THE INVENTOR OF THE STEAMBOAT

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:— I beg to thank you for publishing my letter, as also for your courtesy in sending me the copies of your current issue.

I wish to point out that although I insist that it would be a most difficult matter to prove that any other of the so-called inventors have any just claim to priority, yet if any reliable proof of any "inventor" having produced a practically successful steamboat prior to 1784 is available, I would be glad to sink any claim on behalf of Jonathan Hulls, but in my humble opinion, from research I have made upon the subject, such is not possible. Therefore I boldly assert that he and he alone should have the great honor ascribed to him. "Why refuse that?"

I claim practical success of his invention, but not commercial success, and to do justice to an inventor's memory, it should not be for the purpose of requiring commercial success. He laid the foundation for commercial success this fact is undeniable, therefore why should he not have the honors and distinction for his position? Always remembering that he was many years ahead of his competitors.

I do not admit, what is so generally claimed, that it is not the man who invents, as the man who puts into actual practice, that is deserving of the honors. Without the man who invents, there could be no need. Neither would he have any place for putting into practice that which he would otherwise have had no knowledge of, had it not been for the earlier inventors.

It appears clear that Jonathan Hulls, although the side-boat had existed for many years propelled by both manual and animal power, was the first to actually first to suggest steam power to supersede both methods by steam propulsion. And with his original invention of the steam wheel, combined with the side paddle, his claim to originality is made doubly sure, always remembering the very early date of his invention and the very crude form of steam engine which then existed. Therefore the greater the honor that should be accorded to him.

With regard to Polton, no serious claim can stand in face of the foregoing. To put it mildly he was only a copyist in the matter of steam propulsion. I cannot too forcibly assert that Robert Fulton has no claim whatever, and this fact is X. Arthur Daniel corroborates. This gentleman asserts that "England should certainly set up a monument for Jonathan Hulls, as he was undoubtedly the original inventor in England," and he further states "whether he actually built the boat or not is of no special consequence."

I have been able to provide proof that he did build his boat, and that it was a practical success. Consequently, any additional proofs I have supporting him—and they are numerous—would be quite superfluous. There could not possibly be more than one inventor of steam navigation, whatever adjective be used.

J. HARRIS HULLS

Manor Park, Essex, England



# GRAPHITE MINING IN CEYLON

BY THE ENGLISH CORRESPONDENT OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

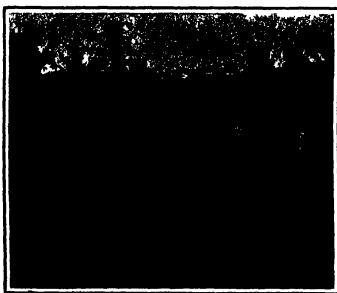
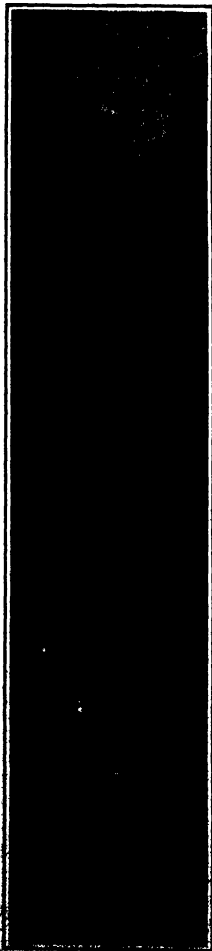
Among the various minerals found in the island of Ceylon, that which is the most abundant is graphite or plumbago, practically the only one found in sufficient quantity to render exploitation profitable. It has attained a worldwide reputation for its excellent quality, its composition being practically pure carbon, and is in extensive demand for crucibles. The average output is approximately 80,000 tons per annum, the greater part of which is exported to Great Britain and the United States. Within the past two decades

the trade has undergone considerable expansion with the result that mining is being extensively developed.

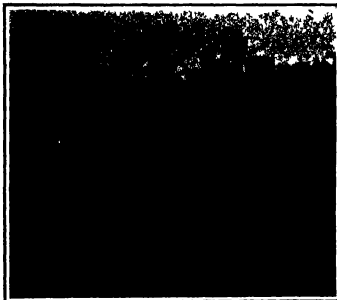
The mineral is found in veins and nests in the crystalline rocks occurring frequently in a fibrous or flaky form, the flakes being disposed at right angles to the wall of the vein. These veins vary in width, sometimes being less than an eighth of an inch, while in others they will extend to several feet. Some are found to follow the foliation planes of the various rocks, while others run crosswise or branch in all directions.

As a rule in a series of shafts sunk close to one another it will be found that a single main vein or several parallel veins will extend through the whole of these pits with minor veins stretching from either side along the planes of division. Even if the mineral is not found in continuous veins but rather in isolated pockets or nests these are generally parallel to one of the main directions. Investigations show that the mineral exists in a series of belts, but their extension can

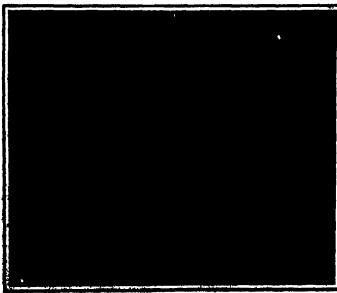
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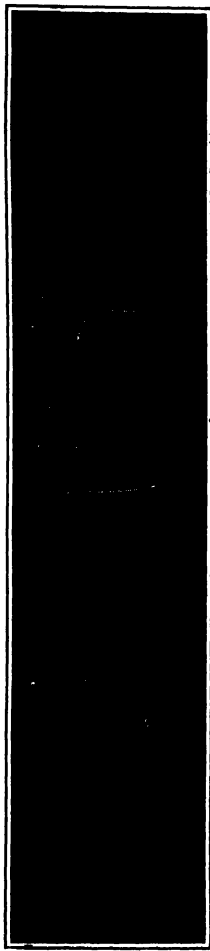
Sifting and screening the graphite.



Hand choosing, sifting, and breaking large pieces of graphite after screening.



Final sorting of graphite into first and second qualities and packaging for shipment.



Graphite pit, showing crude baling arrangements. Baling is carried on by natives.



# RUFUS PORTER AND HIS "FLYING SHIP."

BY C. E. McCLUER.



Soon after the Montgolfiers invented their first "hot-air" balloon, which was almost immediately followed by the first "gas" balloon, the attention of scientists and inventors seems to have been centered on the spherical and elongated gas bag as a means of flotation, and the provision of propellers and rudders to enable the navigator to control the movements of the unwieldy and wind-tossed sphere, and produce what is now known and briefly described as a "dirigible" balloon. Omitting all reference to the work of the many accomplished and venturesome balloonists who originated or copied the various devices which they adopted for the guidance and management of their spherical or pear-shaped, or elongated and cigar-shaped gas envelopes, we will revert at once to the subject of our sketch.

Rufus Porter, belonging to that numerous class of ingenious New Englanders usually styled "Yankee inventors" was born at West Oxford, Mass., May 1st, 1792 and died in New Haven, Conn., August 12th, 1884. Although he received only a common district

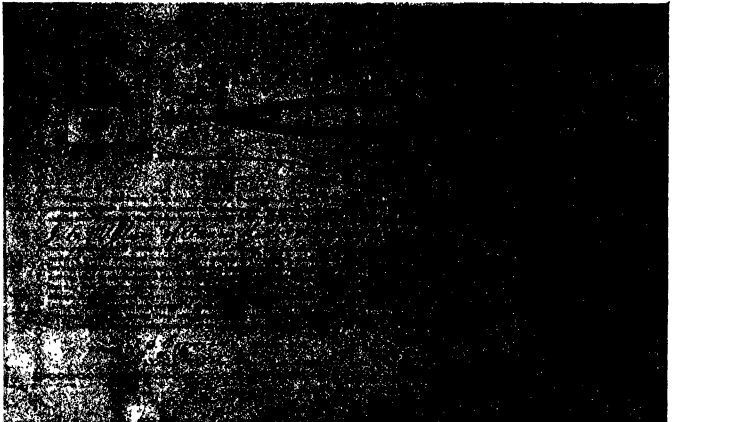
varying success, his journalistic enterprise was purchased by the present proprietors of the *Scientific American*.

Among Porter's less noticed inventions, and the one from which I presume he reaped the smallest recompense, was a flying machine, or as now styled, a "dirigible" balloon, but which he dubbed an "aeroprop." As nearly as I can ascertain from the records at my command, this invention was made and patented in 1830, but not until 1853 did Porter seem to make any serious effort to exploit the device. In that year he organized what he called "The Aerial Navigation Company," and attempted to raise the funds necessary to enable him to construct his first aeroprop by an appeal to popular support through the sale of \$5 bonds or certificates.

Among the papers of my deceased father I have recently found one of these bonds, issued to him under date of April 28th, 1853, a facsimile of which is reproduced herewith.

Below follows an abbreviated copy of the "proposal

not exceed \$25 per day. It is ascertained by a minute and careful estimate that an aeroprop 150 feet long and capable of carrying five persons at a speed of sixty miles per hour, may be constructed for \$1,500. Now, having been disappointed in the funds requisite to put this invention in operation on a scale of practical utility, I propose that if three hundred persons will subscribe five dollars each, payable when the whole amount of 1,500 dollars shall have been subscribed, I will forthwith construct this pioneer aeroprop, (which may be done in six weeks), and when this is put in operation I can readily command the requisite funds for constructing a large aeroprop as above mentioned. And I will so arrange that each subscriber on the payment of the said sum of five dollars, shall be furnished with a regular title deed, which shall entitle the holder thereof to one three-hundredth part of this first aeroprop, and also to one three-thousandth part of the first large aeroprop that shall be constructed, and of all benefits and emoluments that may be derived therefrom for twenty years, the said aeroprop



FACSIMILE OF THE AERIAL NAVIGATION COMPANY BOND WHICH SHOWS THE PORTER AEROPROP DIRIGIBLE CAR.

school education, he possessed an alert mind and a retentive memory, which, coupled with a natural genius for observation and invention, fitted him admirably for an active and useful life. His early displayed inventive abilities of no mean order, as is attested by the list of his patented inventions disclosed by the records of the Patent Office. Some of his patents displayed an acumen and foresight which led him into the van of progress, and proved that he was fully abreast if not actually ahead of his time. Among his numerous patented inventions we find enumerated a cord making machine, a steam carriage or ordinary road vehicle, propeller of the latter day automobile, a pioneer treadmill horse-power machine, a corn sheller, the inevitable Yankee churn, a washing machine, a signal telegraph, and a municipal fire-alarm system, the latter doubtless being the forerunner of the largely adopted and efficient Gamewell fire-alarm system, now so largely in vogue.

In 1840 we find Porter as editor of *The New York Mechanic*, the first purely scientific newspaper published in the United States. The next year it was removed to Boston and the title changed to *The American Mechanic*. In 1845, evidently not having made a pronounced success with the publication of *The American Mechanic* he returned to New York and began the publication of another journal which he styled "Scientific American, the Advocate of Industry and Enterprise, and Journal of Mechanical and Other Improvements," on a cash capital of \$100. The first number of the new periodical was issued on the 28th day of August, 1846. After six months of struggle, with

tion and prospectus" alluded to in the bond, as I find it printed in the issue of the *National Intelligencer* of March 19th, 1852.

"THE FLYING SHIP."

"A chance to secure a cash income of \$10 to \$20 per week for twenty years by the investment of five dollars in advance.

"It is extensively known that the undervalued has by theory and practical experiments so fully demonstrated the practicability of aerial navigation that all who have fully examined the subject are convinced, and no person, even of those whose interests are adverse to its success, can offer a word of rational argument against it. Several model machines have been constructed, and each of them has operated successfully, and one of them, sixteen feet long, carried a small steam engine, by the power of which the machine was propelled, and, being guided by its own helm, travelled rapidly through the air, even against a breeze of wind in direct flow or circles, according to the adjustment of its helm. This machine was witnessed and applauded by hundreds in New York and Boston and notices thereof were published in several newspapers of these cities at the time. Since those experiments were made the inventor has made additional improvements whereby the invention is now perfected. And it appears certain that a safe and durable aerial ship (or aeroprop), capable of carrying one hundred and fifty passengers at a speed of ninety miles an hour, with more perfect safety than either steamboat or railroad car, may be constructed for \$15,000, and that the expense of running it will

to be kept in repair without expense to the shareholders. . . . Washington, March 18th, 1852. Rufus Porter."

While with the added knowledge and experience of a half century we can see wherein Porter was mistaken in his calculations and visionary to a considerable degree, we can also see wherein he was in advance of his day and generation, and prepared to achieve the success that later and quite recently attended the efforts of Count Zeppelin and others of the present day, had he but been in possession of the gasoline or alcohol motor as now applied to dirigible balloons and aeroplanes. Comparing the faithful representation of his aeroprop as given by the engraving printed on the bond, one cannot help being struck with its resemblance to the modern dirigible balloon. While, without repeating Porter's calculations as to the capacity of his aeroprop for tonnage and speed, I deem he was guilty of exaggeration, he certainly came mighty near the ideal calculations for a successful dirigible balloon with wedge of engine, boiler, and cabin greatly reduced. What method he adopted for sustaining his gas cylinder in the absence of the metal, aluminum, as used by Count Zeppelin, is not disclosed, but it is quite possible on inspection of his patent specifications upon a suitable provision for that purpose.

Rufus Porter is certainly entitled to all the credit attending the organization of his "aerial" enterprise, and the success of his superior inventive genius in connection with the success of aeroplanes, and so a pioneer in this department of human endeavor.



IMITATION MARBLE

BY A. J. LEBLANC

A simple method of imitating marble with all its beautiful live markings spots, and irregular lines and variable colors, is as follows:

The skill in giving the veining, etc., to the product will be quickly attained by making a few small slabs in a plain way previous to undertaking the production of a larger number. The colors for the "veining" must all be of a mineral character, as follows: plumbago (black lead), chrome green (dark), common crocus,



IMITATION MARBLE

yellow ochre, red oxide of iron, and ultramarine blue. Procure a few pieces of stout glass, say 7 inches by 11 inches (an ordinary 11x14 photographic negative cleared and cut in halves is just the thing). Make a wooden frame of  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch board, an inch deep with a division in the middle, simply held together with 1 inch iron brads not driven firmly in. Leave an eighth of an inch projecting so that they can be easily withdrawn with a pair of pliers. Arrange these strips of wood after being thoroughly plastered all over, so as to give two squares of five inches internal measurement.

Make up the following in a bottle: Paraffin wax,  $\frac{1}{2}$  ounce, benzine,  $\frac{1}{2}$  pint. Place this well corked in a warm room to dissolve, add this by shaking it occasionally when the paraffin is dissolved it is ready for use. Brush some of this preparation all over the inside of the wooden panel. Then take a piece of Canton flannel or soft rag, wet it with the benzine mixture, rub this well all over the smooth side of the glass plate, polish it thoroughly with two pieces of soft rag until there appears to be nothing left and place the panel on the glass plate. Now lay a mirror, or a piece of plain silvered glass upon the work bench, or table, and place a block of wood at each end so that the glass plate and frame will rest about four inches above the mirror the frame being held in place by a couple of rubber bands. Place a teaspoonful of chrome green in a small saucer and a teaspoonful of black lead in another saucer and add a desiccatorpound of water to each.

Mix the following in any suitable vessel (a small stoneware pitcher being well suited). To ten ounces of water add sufficient plaster of Paris to make a mixture of the consistency of thick cream. Skin off the air bubbles and any dust that may float on top, when in the course of a minute or two the water must be poured carefully into one side of the glass plate on top of the glass plate. Fill this nearly half way. Pour the remaining portion into the other square. Now dip a small brush into the molten black lead, press it through the soft plaster and paint the plate or scribing veining or spots. The plaster blends beautifully with the color and the mirror enables one to see the effects produced. Any line made too strong or lumpy in appearance can easily be rectified by a light stroke of the brush. Green streaks or veins in the plaster may be painted with the same brush after washing it quickly and dipping it into the chrome green. Treat the other square in the same way.

Having now produced the veining, the block may be reinforced as follows: Have ready to hand a few pieces of pulverized iron netting. Cut a piece  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch square with a quantity of net (each of three-eighths of an inch mesh). Bend up the wire and lay the piece down upon the plaster with rough ends sticking up. In the same pitcher that the plaster was mixed, add about the same quantity of Portland cement, a little of the water (and the cement, a

small quantity at a time, pour the mixture upon the plaster and wire netting until the panel is filled. Treat the second square in the same way, allow the whole to stand for an hour, until both plaster and cement have become quite set. As soon as all has become well set, draw out the brads with a pair of pliers and remove the woodwork carefully. This will hasten the drying. Take care not to stir the cast blocks upon the glass plate. Let them become quite dry while in contact. When dry the colors will not be more than one-third as brilliant as when wet, the effect being precisely like marble. The face of these blocks will possess very smooth surfaces with only a partial gloss upon them, being at the same time porous. The porosity can be stopped and the gloss improved by the use of amylose collodion. This is practically a solution of gun cotton in amylose. Wash with not only fill the pores of the plaster, but forms a coating as clear and transparent as water. It regulates the action of weak acids and alkalis and can be washed with water and a chamois leather at any time without injury to the object it covers.

When the squares are perfectly dry and slightly warm they must be placed in a plate or large saucer, containing a mixture of amylose collodion and one-third amylose. This collodion will penetrate the pores of the plaster for a quarter of an inch or more in a short time. Remove the squares and stand on one corner to dry in a warm place. When dry a coating of the thick amylose collodion may be brushed upon the surface and allowed to drain from the opposite corner. The surface will improve in brightness with every coating. Amylose collodion costs about two dollars per gallon at any wholesale chemist's. A gallon will go a long way in waterproofing such slabs of imitation marble as here described.

A much harder material with a slight grain can be produced by mixing a small quantity of ground pumice or ground glass with the plaster which must be intimately mixed to insure uniformity. This mixture is sometimes termed Parlan cement. Imitation marble can be made by the above process into any shape such as a keystone for a mantelpiece or similar with an inside border and in many other ways that will suit the taste of the individual worker. In place of Portland cement, Parlan cement may be used as described above, thus producing a slab of an almost uniform color. Any slab of slab may be made as described. Of course the thickness must increase with the size of the slab to give strength.

SOME CURIOUS CHEMICAL GROWTHS

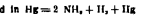
BY ALFRED P. MORGAN

The following experiments are somewhat out of the ordinary, but may be performed with the materials at hand in any chemical laboratory, or obtainable at a well-stocked drug store.

In the first experiment mercury is prepared by throwing into it small pieces of clean metallic sodium. The sodium will almost immediately take fire and have a hard crust on the surface of the mercury. Break this crust with a glass rod and stir it in the mercury until it disappears. The little pill bottle on the right in the illustration contains five cubic centimeters of mercury having sodium dissolved in it. The tumbler on the left shows five cubic centimeters transformed into "ammonium amalgam," and occupying a space over fifty times the original volume of the mercury. The transformation was brought about by

spongy in nature, and its growth in all probability caused by the evolution of a gas. This is indeed the true explanation of the phenomenon. The  $\text{NH}_3$  of the ammonium chloride dissolves in the mercury but soon the mass decomposes, and bubbles of ammonia and hydrogen gas cause the spherulic growth.

In a few moments the mass will begin to sink, and a strong smell of ammonia will be noticeable. If a lighted match is held over the small bubbles arising from the liquid, they will burn, lighting with the "pop" indicative of hydrogen. The mercury will soon return to its normal condition, in accordance with the following equation:



There can be no doubt that the  $\text{NH}_4$  is actually present in solution in the mercury, for when a salt of ammonium is decomposed by electrolysis, the  $\text{NH}_4$  ion upon its discharge gives ammonia and hydrogen and no  $\text{NH}_3$  is formed. That if a pool of mercury is used as the negative electrode the  $\text{NH}_4$  dissolves in the mercury and forms an amalgam with it. However, during the formation it swells up and gives off the products mentioned above.



GROWTH OF ALUMINUM OXIDE ON A TELEPHONE RECEIVER.

The most interesting point about this experiment is that it is in accordance with the theory that ammonium would have the properties of a metal if it could be isolated. For excepting this substance the metals themselves can only be dissolved in mercury.

The second photograph is an illustration of an experiment depending upon the peculiar property of aluminum amalgam.

The action of sulphuric and nitric acids upon ordinary aluminum is very slow because the metal receives a coating of aluminum hydroxide and is shielded from the acid, but if aluminum is amalgamated with mercury, the action is very rapid.

Aluminum has a very great affinity for oxygen, and will displace all the metals save magnesium from their oxides. If a mixture of aluminum and ferric oxide is placed in a crucible, and fired by means of a piece of burning magnesium, a violent reaction takes place enough heat being produced to leave the iron, which is one of the products, in a highly molten state. This is the principle of the "thermite" used for welding, etc.



Some idea of the speed of reaction and the heat generated may be gained if three small iron crucibles are placed in a vertical column, one above the other and separated five or six inches. A mixture of aluminum and ferric oxide is placed in the top crucible and ignited. Almost immediately molten iron will melt its way through the bottom of the first crucible and pass through the second and third as there was nothing in the way. A box of wood should be placed beneath the bottom crucible to catch the molten metal.

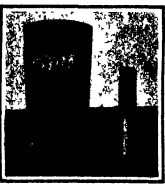
The affinity of aluminum for oxygen can be shown by amalgamating a piece of the metal with mercury. The surface of the mercury is almost immediately oxidized and the result is a growth of white tufts of aluminum oxide over the surface of the metal where it has been amalgamated. The growth will rise about one-eighth of an inch or more in five minutes.

The easiest method of amalgamating the aluminum is to clean a small portion, and then drop upon it some mercuric nitrate solution and allow it to dry. The growth will immediately commence.

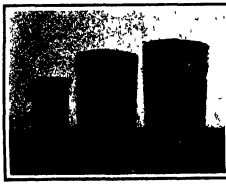
In the illustration, the case of an aluminum backed telephone receiver has been used for the amalgamation, and the resulting growth is shown by the white spots, principally on top of the left.

The third photograph is a striking illustration of osmotic pressure. The tall plant-like growths may be formed by throwing small pieces of any of the following crystalline chemicals: ferric nitrate, copper chloride, cobalt nitrate, nickel sulphate and manganese sulphate into a beaker glass containing a diluted solution of ammonium chloride of 1.1 specific gravity. The crystals will almost immediately sprout up into various fantastic shapes, and grow several inches in the course of a few minutes.

The salts dissolve in the water of the sodium salt



A SPONGE-LIKE TRANSFORMATION OF MERCURY.



PLANT-LIKE GROWTHS DUE TO OSMOTIC PRESSURE.

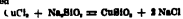
throwing the mercury into a tumbler containing a strong solution of ammonium chloride. The mercury immediately swells up into a spongy mass. The time elapsing between the moment when the sodium amalgam was thrown into ammonium chloride and the taking of the photograph illustrated here was about thirty seconds.

The reaction may be represented as follows: ( $\text{Na}$  dissolved in  $\text{Hg}$ ) and  $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl} = (\text{NH}_4 \text{ dissolved in Hg}) + \text{NaCl}$ .

Upon examination of the mass, it is seen to be very



rate solution and react with the sodium silicate to form a silicate of the metal of the salt added. For instance, in the case of copper chloride copper silicate is formed



Silicate of copper is insoluble and so the result of the reaction is a solid portion of insoluble around the crystal of  $\text{CuCl}_2$  surrounded by a sack of insoluble  $\text{CuSiO}_3$  where the copper chloride has come into contact with the sodium silicate

Particles of a dissolved silicate exercises a pressure similar to that of a gas explosion in physical tests under the title of the kinetic-molecular hypothesis

When the salt is first formed the pressure is equal on both sides but as more of the copper chloride dissolves the pressure on the inside of the sack becomes so great that it bursts at the top where the hydrostatic pressure of the liquid is least and the sack weakens

The liquid spouting out of the top is immediately surrounded by a new sack and the process continues until the salt is exhausted or the growth reaches the surface of the liquid

The silicate of the metals of the salts mentioned in the list above are also insoluble and the same explanation holds true for their action

#### WIRELESS EXPERIMENTS WITH A STATIC MACHINE

BY H. N. W. L. J. J.

In the large quantity of literature on wireless telegraphy practically the only method described of producing the high-tension currents required is that of using a powerful induction coil or a high-tension transformer on an alternating current. The possibility of utilizing the discharge from a static generator of static electricity is hardly treated. In order to test the practicability of the use of such a source of current the writer constructed a static machine of the Wimshurst pattern and made some experiments with it. The machine a photograph of which is shown herewith was fitted with two glass plates twenty inches in diameter supported on a half inch steel shaft. Each plate had thirty sectors of heavy infill 1 1/2 inches long. The brass work was made from 1 1/8 inch round rod and the brass balls on the collectors and Leyden jars were purchased from a manufacturer of brass lead stands as were the large balls terminating the discharge rods and the sending device below. These balls were filled with crushed infill and contact made by inserting the supporting rods in wooden bushings fitted in the necks of the balls

The two Leyden jars showing at the front of the machine were made from hydrometer glasses provided with feet and each had a combined inner and outer coating of 45 square inches of foil. The interior coatings were arranged to be connected with the discharge spark by short loops of brass chain and the exterior coatings joined with a similar chain held along the base of the machine. The device shown attached to the front support is the key by which the spark is thrown into the aerial and ground and the message sent. By pressing the lower lever the rotating arm above it which supports the two insulated balls is pulled upward and the latter are thrown into range of the spark from the discharge balls. One of the key balls is connected to the aerial and the other to a good ground such as a gas or water pipe. I found it best to allow the aerial ball to take its charge from the positive discharge. By pressing the key for longer or shorter intervals the dots and dashes of the code are easily obtained

An aerial was strung on my roof at a height of 45 feet above the ground consisting of two horizontal copper wires supported on two-foot spreaders with leads of 1/2 inch at the corner running to the edge of the roof where they were joined and a single wire led down to the machine on the third floor. This aerial gave a wave-length of about 75 meters. Owing to the extremely high tension and insulating nature of the discharge it was not necessary to insulate the wires with gut or wire which was done by supporting them in paraffin glass tubes. The machine as constructed gave a solid stream of bright two-inch sparks reverberating these from an induction coil when the large Leyden jars were used and the jars upon needed. With the latter in circuit in the usual manner a very thick loud and powerful spark of about the same length

was obtained at intervals. With a large ball on the right hand rod and a small one on the left, a much thinner and more frequent spark from five to six inches long appeared

The first experiments in sending messages were conducted with the receiver in a room about thirty feet away from the machine, using a gaspipe ground and



Fig. 1—GRATING WHICH GIVES THE COLOR ILLUSION

no receiving aerial. A number of detectors were constructed experimentally. In testing a coherer and dc coherer with a 1/2 inch gap filled with nickel-silver filings a microphone consisting of a piece of hard pencil lead bridging two steel needles a bare point electrolytic and a Marconi magnetic detector. In all the tests made the coherer gave the best results at short range and the microphone the best for longer distance. Indeed the sounds were much clearer in this case than when the electrolytic was used though the latter is considered the most sensitive of all

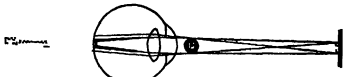


Fig. 2—DIAGRAM EXPLAINING THE COLOR ILLUSION

In these experiments a home-made relay of 300 ohms resistance was used with the coherer and a pair of 110-volt ear phones with the microphone. In the experiment conducted in the rear by room the straight spark from the discharge balls was used and gave clear signals. The coherer was then moved to the back yard and provided with a ten-foot aerial stretched horizontally six feet above the ground the other connection being to a water pipe. The signals were still received clearly but on increasing the distance to three hundred yards no result was obtained with either receiver although the aerial was extended to a length of thirty feet

In order to increase the power of the spark the inner coatings of the jars were connected to the discharge rods the outer coatings still remaining unconnected

By this arrangement a shorter thicker and more brilliant spark was thrown into the key balls which while not as frequent as in the former case was sufficiently continuous to easily permit sending distinct dots and dashes when the machine was driven at a slightly higher speed. The microphone now responded clearly when the key was worked showing the increase in efficiency of the new arrangement and a more ambitious experiment was decided upon. The receiving station including microphone telephone receiver tuning coil battery, etc. was transferred to a house three-quarters of a mile away and a receiving aerial erected. At the owner of the house objected to the use of the roof for this purpose I was compelled

to set up a portable installation located at a vacant site, providing drive by telephone and telegraph

Three detectors were applied successively for a comparison, and a three-foot movable signal at the test house which were prepared a pair of copper wires thirty feet long. These wires were joined at the bottom and led to the instrument house and a capacity of 125 meters and those to the microphone. The distance ranged how my better half patiently worked the static machine at the sending end for fifteen minutes, sending dashes at slow speed and in groups of three, to avoid confusion and send signals at the factory but unambiguously heard in the phone at my end

I have no doubt that with a more efficient aerial, variable condenser, high resistance lead phonon, and potentiometer for the battery the receiving distance could be enormously increased. Possibly a fine spark gap and sending helix would be an advantage at the sending end. A multiple machine, having three or more pairs of plates would probably have sufficient capacity to rapidly charge and discharge a small pair of Leyden jars and so send greatly increased power into the aerial and increase the radius of efficiency. The details of the spark gap showing the character of the spark as given from the interiors of the jars alone as used in the foregoing experiments are shown in one of the photographs. The receiving apparatus with the exception of the tuning coil is also shown herewith

#### A COLOR AND RELIEF ILLUSION

BY FREDERICK H. CROOK, NEW YORK, U.S.A.

Hold a pin vertically with its pointed end between the thumb and forefinger. Place the pin thus held before your eye in contact with your eyelid. Close the other eye and look at the drawing Fig. 1, this being at a distance of about three to five inches from your eye

Two differently colored gratings apparently placed at two different distances from the eye both of them made up of vertical lines will immediately appear. One seems to be relatively near. Its lines have a dark brownish hue. The other is made up of dark bluish bars and every one of these seems to stand at a distance behind the first grating. If the figure be moved laterally the nearby brownish lines are seen to move on with the paper but the bluish bars run in the opposite direction

The nearby brownish bars are the black stripes of the figure. In spite of the fact that the distance between the figure and the eye is shorter than that of distinct vision the stripes are not much blurred as the pin decreases the aperture of the pupil and thereby increases the depth of focus

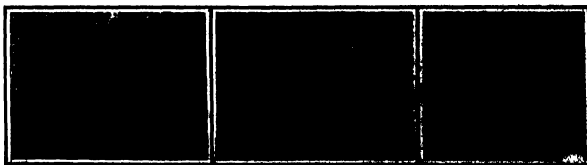
The far away bluish bars are the shadows cast by the pin on the retina in the middle of every luminous beam sent by the corresponding white lines. The shade is cast right side up but the image is upside down and the result is the curious inverse motion of the bluish bars when the paper or pin is made to travel laterally

The origin of the bluish color of these bars is shown on Fig. 2.  $LL$  is the cross section of a white line. The pin  $P$  (relative size is exaggerated) closes the central part of the crystalline lens and as the accommodation of the periphery is imperfect there is a rather strong dispersion of the white light. The blue rays  $BB$  of the shaded spectrum invade the obscure central zone which is the shadow of the pin. This assumes a bluish hue. For a similar reason the less refrangible colors red and yellow lag behind and remain on the image of the black stripes right and left of the white line. The admixture of colored light to the dark stripes is increased by the fact that the whole image being out of focus from the front between the black and white lines cannot be sharp

The blue rays meet to a focus before the red and yellow rays. They give therefore the impression of coming from a far-away luminous object. The contrary statement is true for the red and yellow rays. This accounts in part for the fact that the brownish bars are seen to be nearer than the bluish bars

The writer assumes however that this explanation does not entirely satisfy him

Indemnification black ink to made fresh I paid \$1000.00, 15 years of service to the State, but not a cent of money was paid me. The writer says that the State should pay him \$1000.00 for the loss of his service.



RECEIVING APPARATUS SHOWING THE PHOTOGRAPH SHOWING CHARACTER OF SPARK SIGNALS.





**MINIATURE BOWMAN MACHINE.**  
(Continued from page 24.)

trifling force effected by the hand, causes the ball to sweep during its revolution. In this operation, though the hand is revolved, the drum upon which the ball rests in the palm or cup is stationary. This device is brought into action when it is desired to give the ball a "spin." There is a groove in the drum in the palm over which a hand is passed, and which by suitable arrangement is carried to the same points on the "waver" pulleys. For imparting a pure spin to the ball, the pulley rotating the hand as above described is thrown into action, and simply the drum in the palm upon which the ball rests revolves during the travel of the arm on an axis parallel with the drum and at right angles to the line of flight instead of revolving on an axis parallel with the line of flight, as in the action to produce swerve. If desired, both actions can be brought into use at the same time, and then the ball is given a compound or refractory gyration—a combination of swerve and spin—which delivers punting to the machine, but delivery because of the erratic and constantly varying rotary axis of the ball.

The device is easily suited for practicing purposes. The relative angles of the arm can be altered at will, and there is a "velometer" mounted on the machine to indicate the exact momentum during flight. The variations possible are so extensive, and no two successive balls need be delivered alike, the change being effected without the batsman being aware of the fact, or if desired a certain type of delivery can be repeated ad lib. Every gyration can be adjusted as desired, and indeed it is possible to mechanically reproduce the delivery of any particular bowler. The "break," i. e., the tangent to right or left produced when the ball strikes the ground, is measured by a graduated stick, which is also attached to the side of the machine. The swerve of the ball to one side or the other during flight. Similarly, the ball can be made to leave the "hand" at any point of the arm's travel, and in this manner a series of steps to secure this end. In this manner the pitch of the ball, that is the distance from the machine to the point where it comes into contact with the ground, can be easily varied, and similarly the ball can be made to strike the ground in such a way that after the impact it shoots forward at great speed.

The machine is mounted on telescopic legs, and the height of the delivery of the ball can be made to coincide with that of any bowler whom it is desired possibly to imitate, the variable range being from six to eight feet above the ground. The mechanism is also arranged to swivel on its body, so that the bowler arm can be pointed in any direction without moving the body. The arm is brought to the horizontal position by means of a lever, by which it is also raised and lowered, and at the same time a disk is raised to warn the batsman of the impending delivery. Every ball delivered is moreover registered automatically upon a dial.

**AUTOMATIC RAILWAY SAFETY STOP.**  
(Continued from page 25.)

duced the locking wedge into its normal position.

The remarkable safety of this apparatus is mainly based on the considerations (1) The locomotive personnel is warned in a triple manner on a closed signal being passed over, viz., (1) by the whistle, (2) by the bell, (3) by the brake being actuated. (2) The train is stopped. (3) By ordinary braking (in the case of preliminary signals) and by emergency speed braking (in the case of main signals) with two pairs of contacts. (4) The question as to whether the locomotive personnel has been warned or not, is given by the bell, which is also indicated by the dash and dot response. (5) The track points which are only 10 ft. apart are in such a position that any train transported may be perfectly satisfied by.

(Continued on page 36.)

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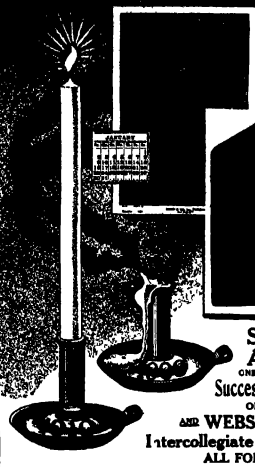
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The electrician and the man in the physics and chemical laboratory furnished another tributary to the fund of ideas. Automobile, motor cycle, motor boats and life-like frequently call for a display of ingenuity among a class of men who observe would cover much a lot. These also contributed a large share of suggestions that poured in upon us. It was apparent from the outset that the Handy Man's Workshop Department for the Scientific American would be vitally indispensable for as large a volume of material, but rather than reject any really useful idea for lack of space we have selected the worthiest suggestions, which we present in the present volume. They have all been classified and arranged in right chapters, under the following headings:

I. Fixing up a Workshop. II. Shop Kinds. III. Soldering of Metals. IV. The Handy Man in the Factory. V. The Handy Man's Experimental Laboratory. VI. The Handy Man's Electrical Laboratory. VII. The Handy Man About the House. VIII. The Handy Man in the Field. IX. Model and Flying Machine. Index.

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(Continued from page 37.)  
able, while the capital outlay is small, a handsome profit is secured. The industry is however somewhat controlled by the government, which levies an export duty of about \$1 per ton, representing an annual contribution to the revenue of the island of about \$100,000. The increasing extension of credit in the metallurgical industries, and the result an increased demand for graphite is responsible for the present flourishing condition of the industry.

## Woven Aluminum.

Aluminum, as is well known is extracted from clay and it was Napoleon who styled it the "silver of clay." Formerly it was the practice to extract it from the clay with the aid of rotors. More recently the electrical current is employed for this purpose, with marked success, the cost of producing this valuable and by no means fully utilized metal, having by its employment been very much reduced. In 1859 a wound of aluminum cost about \$40 nowadays it costs only about 20 cents. Above all other metals, aluminum has the greatest specific lightness with the greatest durability and toughness. It can be rolled, cut and drawn exceedingly fine. This has made aluminum valuable and useful in the textile industries. For many years, woven steels or screens have been made of aluminum, which have proved indispensable in the sugar refining industry. Its principal advantage consists in the fact that the surface of the aluminum, on the slightest exposure to the air, becomes covered with a coating of oxide which is capable of offering almost perfect resistance to foreign influences such as acids, etc. This is like of great importance where aluminum is used in the textile industries.

Speaking of actual weaving of aluminum into textile fabrics, particularly such as are intended for use for decorative purposes and costumes, it may be stated that this is well and successfully practiced in England. At the time of the Paris exhibition, there were shown as special attractions fabrics and clothes made from aluminum fibers. They were made from finely spun aluminum filaments. The fabrics made from aluminum do not need combination with other textile yarns. Of late the most beautiful effects have been obtained by employing aluminum in smooth as well as twisted threads for the warp and as the self silk yarn of any desired color. They are used for evening cloaks and theatrical costumes. As the *Evening Work* he says it makes the body of a beautiful woman look as though dipped in silver. From aluminum, they are now making neck clothes pompadour shoes bolts neck cloth awnings and hats, and it is hard to guess the limit for the possibilities of this metal. Very striking are net fabrics in combination with aluminum which make a novel novelty for decorative decoration. Aluminum yarn made up into lace for ladies' shoes as well as used for straps, promade to be a feature of the coming season.

It would be quite an advantage to the motorist, a contemporary, if he could communicate by wireless telephone with his garage or the nearest repair shop in case of accident. An American inventor, who is developing a system of wireless telephony recently made experiments with portable apparatus to determine the range of service of the instrument. He was able to communicate with a short distance with a garage in New York, but at a distance of eight miles the apparatus failed. Apparently wireless telephony may be developed far beyond its present efficiency before it can be of service to the motorist. The chief difficulty is that only a short transmitting antenna can be used, requiring an enormous expenditure of energy to reach a city garage, because of obstacles in the way, such as steel buildings, trees, wires, etc.



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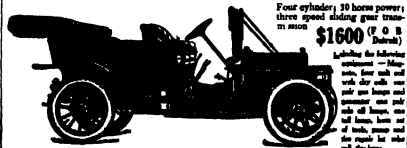
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THE MACHINERY-POWER OF THE MODERN FARMER.—[See page 50.]

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## THE 1910 AUTOMOBILE

[illegible]

The tendency toward standardization is even more marked this year than last, and the freak car is conspicuous by its absence. The predominance of the four-cylinder motor would indicate that this is to be the prevailing type of the future. The six-cylinder motor is being made, but in spite of its acknowledged advantages of more even torque, etc., it is mainly confined to expensive cars of high power. An encouraging feature, based upon thoroughly sound mechanics, is the increased length of stroke, two of the leading makers exhibiting 30-horse-power cars with cylinders 3½ inches by 5 inches stroke and 3½ inches by 5 inches stroke respectively.

Unfortunately, the present flood of property in the automobile industry is due largely to the fact that a multitude of people of moderate means, who have been waiting until a thoroughly serviceable car can be built at a low price, is now being accommodated. Several makers are offering a four-cylinder 20-horsepower car having all the features of stylish design. These cars, which are being sold for the low price of \$750. Cars of this type have proved during the past year that with judicious handling they are perfectly well able to stand up under constant and severe service. The new designs are also being made to take into consideration the variations in the valve arrangement to suit the tastes of the various builders has become the standard type, and the indications are that ultimately the cylinderhead will be made in a standard form. The new designs given place to ball-and-parallel bearings of modified arrangement. A few of the first-class cars are using a ball-and-parallel bearing with an outer rotating ring. For axles, a ball bearing with a few stiff cone rollers. For axles, a ball bearing with a few stiff cone rollers.

shaft to be continuously as one massive projection. This is practically universal in the case of high-tension ignition all machines down to the lowest prices. The magnets are magnetized with either a four-pole or six-pole coil and are actuated by a cam on the crankshaft. The spark is produced either as an auxiliary or a dual system of ignition. The shaft drive is in almost exclusive use, the chain being retained only on very large cars. The transmission, except on the smallest cars, is almost invariably of the sliding and selective type, with three speeds ahead and one reverse and the excellent results obtained by those firms which have placed the transmission on the rear axle are bringing this arrangement into general favor.

Lubrication is effected mainly by two systems: gas

employing "splash" lubrication, in which the cranks pass through a bath of oil contained in the bottom of the crank case, and the other employing a trough and a pump, which causes a constant and positive circulation through every bearing. Outside of a tendency to enlarge the size there are no notable changes in the valve mechanism of American cars, and it is rather remarkable that, in spite of the increased use which is being made abroad of the slide valve (a distinctly American invention), there seems to be no disposition to develop this type in the land of its birth.

Although the multiple-disk clutch bids fair to become the exclusive type abroad, the familiar, leather-covered cone clutch has rendered such excellent service on American machines that it still holds its own, and this in spite of the fact that the multiple-disk type has been giving good results on such American cars as carry them.

In the manufacture of car bodies, there is a marked tendency toward the adoption of straight-line designs. Several stylish-looking cars, both of medium and high grade, are shown with the much-talked-of torpedoid body, in which both the front and rear seats are on the top of the car, the front seat being placed well forward as well as behind. The provision of doors that open toward the front instead of toward the rear is commendable, both from the standpoint of convenience and safety. An additional advantage of the torpedoid body is that it provides excellent protection for the passengers in the event of a collision. A notable tendency of the times is the growing popularity of wind shields and "tops," the appreciation of the former being due largely to the general objection to the wearing goggles. The use of tops renders the motorist comparatively independent of the weather, and, consequently, less subject to the all-round comfort of touring.

The question of the relative advantages of the right-hand and left-hand drive is coming to the front, and some makers are offering cars with steering wheels placed at the left of the car. Unquestionably the right-hand position is preferable in those foreign countries where the rule of the road in meeting and passing is the opposite of our own. There, in meeting a car, one passes to the left, and the driver, if seated on the right side of the car, is in a favorable position for judging of the necessary clearance. In this country, where the rule of the road is reversed, it would seem logical also to reverse also the position of the driver.

versal also the position of the driver's seat, the steering wheel, the pedals forms perhaps the most notable feature of this truck's new package, no less than seventeen different makes of commercial motor vehicles being shown at the Grand Central Palace.

In question design, engineering, and construction, in the variety of uses for which the vehicles have been built, this section compared favorably with the best of the world. In the case of the trucks, one of the men passed from one to another of those powerful machines and noted the excellent combination of compactness and great capacity the impression became strong that the truck was the most important development of the motor vehicle had come into its own. Certainly the statistics of the trade bear out this conviction, for it is estimated that during the coming year about fifty thousand new trucks will be sold in the United States alone. This gratifying result is the outcome of several years of careful experimental work, in which wholesale houses department stores, express companies, and other large concerns have been testing the various designs of vehicles under widely different conditions of traffic, both in summer and winter. That the truck is the most important development of the industry is proved by the fact that, in several cases, they are considerably enlarging their plants to meet an expected increase in the demand, and one of the largest truck manufacturers is now turning out five thousand motor vehicles for commercial use during the present year.

### IMPROVED QUALITY VERSUS PRICE REDUCTION

**F**IVE years ago or more, when a man paid \$8,000 or \$2,500 for a touring car, or \$650 to \$1,300 for a runabout, he scarcely expected to get much in the way of reliability and durability—or, if he did, in the exuberance of unsophisticated anticipation, he was pretty sure to be disappointed before he had used the car many days. The narrative of an automobile run in those days was usually a recital of a series of troubles of various sorts, chiefly with tires, carburetor, and ignition, but also frequently with breakages and imperfect functioning of valve mechanism, shafts, gears, chains, and even steering knuckles, driving axles, and other vital parts.

Conditions are very different in the present state of automobile development, when it becomes a matter of surprise to even well-posted observers that eight out of thirty cars taking part in the Glidden tour of 1909 should finish an arduous trip of 2,640 miles run between Detroit, Chicago, Minneapolis, St. Louis, Denver, and Kansas City in fifteen days at an average speed of twenty miles an hour during the daylight running periods, without accident, a slight involuntary stop

for repairs, or for adjustments of any sort, on the way except to brakes, carburetor, the ignition system, and tires. Considering the road and weather conditions under which the work was done and the lack of daily inspection, cleaning, and adjusting, (the probably represents a higher degree of efficiency and performance than can be shown for any other mechanical construction.

[illegible]

Before the special alloy steels were brought out, the motor-car manufacturers nearly reached the end of their resources in the effort to produce light and durable cars of satisfactory power and speed without excessive weight. The transformation that has been wrought can be better comprehended when it is shown that it is not uncommon for specially treated chrome-nickel or vanadium-chrome steel to show a tensile strength of more than 200,000 pounds per square inch as compared with 50,000 pounds tensile strength of fibrous iron of a quality used by wagon makers and also employed for certain purposes in automobiles. That is a bar of the alloy steel one inch square is capable of sustaining a load of 100 tons without breaking.

On steelmaking a load of 100 tons without breaking. The qualities most sought in metals for sliding gears, crankshafts, camshafts, driving and differential pinions and gears and live rear axles are elasticity to resist torsional stresses and impact, hardness to resist wear, and ductility to bend under heavy shock instead of snapping. But ductility must be subordinate to elasticity, as it was found in the earlier days of the industry that the soft Swedish iron and low-carbon Bessemer crucible steel would take a permanent set under the repeated shocks and stresses, and throw the shafts and gears out of alignment.

As a result of the employment of steel of such wonderful strength in the sliding-gear sets, by way of illustration, it is now possible to transmit the 40 and 60 horse-power of the modern touring car with smaller gears than were used in the 15 and 20 horse-power five years ago, and that with much greater certainty against breakage and the practical elimination of the mangling of the ends of the teeth by meshing and of wear due to contact under stress. The designer has been enabled to keep down the weight of the machine as well as to increase the economy of the engine, speed, power, quick acceleration, perfect manageability, and the dependability and durability of the cars of to-day weighing little if any more than the cars of five years ago. The same holds true of the motor trucks, but quite as true of the "roadsters,"

All this improvement in quality, plus infinitely more grace in general lines and in comfort to the passengers, and a complete equipment of folding top, wind shield, head lights, magneto, and other expensive fittings, is offered to the buyer almost at no advance in cost over the ungainly, uncomfortable, and poorly-equipped cars of six and seven years ago.

The high steam shovel record for August on the Panama Canal excavation was made by a shovel working in the Ouleben District, which excavated 1,036 cubic yards of earth in twenty-six working days. "A shovel working eight days in the Ouleben District and eighteen days in the Empire District excavated 17,740 and 26,118 cubic yards, respectively, a total of 43,858 cubic yards, the second best record for the month. A third shovel in the Ouleben District made the high record for one day by excavating 3,467 cubic yards of rock and earth.

## ENGINEERING.

The *Amaguri* railway, which has formed the subject of illustration in this journal, is making steady progress. About 180 men are engaged on the tunnel between Blanner station, 10,245 feet, and the Jungfrau Joch, 11,000 feet above the sea level. The present indications are that the road will be completed toward the close of next year.

At the last meeting of the American Society of Naval Architects and Marine Engineers, in a paper on "Applications of Electricity to the Propulsion of Naval Vessels," Mr. W. L. B. Emmet estimated the efficiency of the turbo-electric installation at 92 per cent, and he, at least, is of the opinion that no other form of speed reduction between turbine and propeller can be made to show equal efficiency.

In a recent article in one of the magazines, Admiral Evans takes a rather pessimistic view of the future of the Panama Canal. He sees but little revenue in prospect, and apparently he holds the view that, unless the canal be declared free to all navigation, it will succeed in attracting but a limited amount of shipping. He seems to be of the opinion that it cannot possibly charge a sufficient toll, at least during the early years of its operation, to pay the heavy fixed and operating charges.

A prize of \$5,000 has been offered in England for a twenty-four-hour aeroplane motor. In weight the engine must not exceed 245 pounds, and it must develop not less than 25 brake horse-power. The points to be considered in making the award will be weight, fuel consumption, reliability, ease of working parts, security against fire, and minimum air resistance. The conditions are severe, but unquestionably the motor is the weak point in the aeroplane at the present stage of its development.

Emphatic testimony to the ability of reinforced concrete to resist earthquake shock is given by the experts who were sent by the Japanese to Mesurata. The buildings that had been constructed of reinforced concrete, according to Prof. Amore, proved to be highly resistant, and much significance was attached to the case of two reservoirs of considerable size, one of brick and the other of reinforced concrete. The concrete structure resulted in the fact that whereas the brick reservoir was completely destroyed.

Recently gathered steam turbine statistics, referring to the growth of this new type of engine in public favor, show that in 1907, 1908, and 1909, there were now sixty-four vessels carrying this equipment, the aggregate horse-power represented being 603,200. It is estimated that boats of this type, which can be used with the turbine, no less than 120 tons of weight was saved in the boiler room of the largest of the turbine propelled liners.

Statistics published by the Interstate Commerce Commission show that during two years, out of 152 preventable collisions and derailments, twenty-one of the accidents were due to the failure of the locomotive engineers to observe the signals. Evidently the human element enters largely into the question of the efficiency of block signaling. In view of this fact, it is encouraging to note the steady growth of automatic stop devices which, in case of failure of the engineer to obey a signal, will open the train pipe and set the brakes.

With a view to guarding the safety of passengers and preserving the life of rails and rolling stock, the Chicago, Milwaukee, and Puget Sound railway will refrain from running heavy trains over the new roadbed until it has had time to become thoroughly compacted and a reasonable amount of stone or gravel ballast has been tamped beneath the ties. It takes some time for embankment to settle into its final place, and, apart from the risks of operation, the running of fast heavy trains over new track entails costly work in renewal and repairs.

Any one who is familiar with the appearance of the Niagara Falls before the present power installations were built and opened, can settle the question as to whether the appearance of the falls has been affected, by the simple expedient of looking at the falls for himself. Small though the total amount of water taken for power purposes, in proportion to the total amount passing over the falls, may be, it has been sufficient to cause the shallowest portions of the falls at the edges of the falls to become entirely dry, thereby greatly reducing the total length of the crest line.

During the last month of 1909, electric service was inaugurated on the newly electrified portion of the London, Brighton and South Coast railway system, the particular portion placed in such service being known as the South London Line, which extends nine miles from Victoria to London Bridge. Formerly the running time of this line was thirty minutes; now it is twenty-five minutes, and trains run at ten-minute intervals. Operation is by the overhead alternating-current trolley, and the motor cars are each fitted with four 100-horse-power single-phase motors.

## ELECTRICAL.

A recent press report states that a chain of wireless stations is to be established by the British Admiralty in the Pacific Ocean. High-powered stations will be placed at Sydney, Auckland, and New Zealand, Sava, the capital of the Fiji group, and Oahu Island, with medium-powered stations in the New Hebrides and Solomon Islands.

A new device for connecting wires has just been put on the market. It consists of a sleeve adapted to fit over the wires, which is filled with a regulable amount of solder. The sleeve is furnished with material which when ignited produces sufficient heat to melt the solder. The wires are then jammed together within the sleeve and firmly secured in this position. The device requires no torch or soldering iron, as the inflammable material can be ignited with a match. The advantage of such a system of connecting wires will be appreciated by those who have tried to solder joints on overhead lines.

The voltage on power transmission lines has been rapidly increasing, and at such a pace as to almost take one's breath away. This development has required a similar advance in the design of transformers capable of taking the high-tension current and reducing it to a lower and more serviceable voltage at the points of distribution. The latest transformers of the General Electric Company have a capacity of 50,000 kva. and are capable of taking a maximum voltage of 138,000 and reducing it to 12,100. These transformers have been built for the Hawaiian Power Company of California. Each transformer unit weighs about 100 tons, stands 17 feet high, and occupies a floor space of 34 by 54 feet.

For the past three years meat has been cured by electricity in much less time than was required by the old method. The meat is placed in large wooden tanks and covered with the ordinary pickle. An alternating current of 35 amperes at 35 volts is passed through the meat, the alterations caused by present electrochemical action. Carbon electrodes are used, which are surrounded by porous cups that dip into the brine. The cost of curing a full vat of meat (four thousand pounds) is less than one dollar. The action of the current is not so perfectly understood as it appears to drive the pickle into the meat and hasten the cure. It also appears to preserve the pickle and prevent its deterioration, except for the loss of in ingredients taken up by the meat.

According to La Londe Electric, a new microphone has been constructed by Messrs. Carl Engstrom and J. Kanner, of Holmstrom, Sweden, which will stand a current ten to fifteen amperes. The details of the instrument are not given out, owing to the fact that it has not yet been protected by a patent. The Swedish government recently connected several telephone lines, forming a line nearly nineteen hundred miles long, and the microphone transmitted speech very clearly over this circuit, whereas with the ordinary apparatus no audible sounds were produced. The new transmitter is being used in the Swedish wireless telephone system and it is claimed that construction has been carried on over a distance of 175 miles, using a high frequency current of six amperes.

The Navy Department is giving its earnest support to the bill introduced by Mr. Roberts, who is a member of the House Committee on Naval Affairs, to control amateur wireless telegraphy. Mr. Roberts's measure is for a broad consolidation of seven existing laws, and an expert each from the Navy, War, and Treasury departments, three experts representing commercial wireless telegraph and telephone interests, and one expert who is well versed in wireless telegraphy and telephony. It is proposed that the operations of the amateur telegraphers be confined to certain hours of the day, and that each operator be required to take out a license. The Navy Department has recently forwarded to Mr. Roberts extracts from the logs of revenue cutters, showing some of the difficulties with which naval wireless operators have to contend.

With characteristic thoroughness the Prussian Government Railways have been endeavoring to make the best use of their time, and also the best trolley system of motors. About 30 miles from Berlin is an oval shaped experimental railway of about a mile in length. Part of the roadbed consists of wooden ties, and the rest of metal ties. Various kinds of rails are used, and various methods of connecting the rails and ties. Over this experimental railway an electric train is operated every weekday for about twenty hours of the week, and in this way it is possible to determine which form of roadbed will best stand the wear of actual service. The overhead system has been collected from time to time, and different forms of collectors have been used. At present the locomotives on this line are driven by Winter-Nieberg single-phase motors geared to the wheels. The company expects soon to use motors mounted on the floor of the locomotive, and small-connected to the driving wheels.

## SCIENCE.

A moving picture opera was taken up by Latham recently on a seven-minute trip, at an elevation of eighty feet from the ground. It took pictures with the lens pointing downward. The apparatus weighed 200 pounds, and the film contained 165 feet.

There seems to be some evidence that insulatory oscillations of the earth's crust increase with there is a strong barometric gradient, without any relation to the wind. The phenomenon has been investigated by two Japanese scientists, one of whom, Omori, has shown that the earth's pulsations are due to changes in the pressure upon the earth's crust caused by barometric change or by accompanying changes in the wind. The other Japanese, who carried on the observations and had a special study of the case of August 4th, 1905, when a depression approached Oahu from the south, finally passing off to the northeast. He obtained records of pulsations with components of .006 and .007. Other cases also support Omori's view.

The blanket effect of clouds, their power of conserving terrestrial temperatures, is discussed by Mr. W. W. Cobbett in a recent number of the Monthly Weather Review. He says that this blanket effect of clouds is due to their high sensitivity for radiation emitted by the earth and here to their high efficiency as heat radiators. A "black body" should have no reflecting power and be covered with water. Water reflects from 5 to 10 per cent of the waves received, and a layer 1 centimeter thick absorbs completely all radiation of wave length greater than 1.5  $\mu$  in the infrared. The earth's maximum emission lies in the region of 10  $\mu$ , and less than 1 millimeter thickness of water is required to produce complete opacity in that region. Owing to this opacity there is little internal radiation of heat waves in the water column.

The ironing of linen may have a greater effect than is expected of it. As the temperature of the iron may greatly exceed 265  $^{\circ}$  F. it has been suggested that the process of ironing may suffice to sterilize surgical dressings and hospital linen, especially in rural districts and elsewhere in the absence of disinfecting agents and sterilizers. Nearly all microbes can be killed by a sufficiently long application of a temperature of 265  $^{\circ}$  F. for a period of 30 minutes. Prof. Joly is required to kill certain species of bacteria and to produce absolutely complete sterilization. It has been proved by experiment that it is possible to disinfect clothing by means of ironing. Clothing which had been worn by children and caused numerous contagious diseases and which contained bacteria of pus, diphtheria, etc. was sprinkled and ironed. It was then rubbed on a piece of red wax, and prepared for the culture of bacteria, but no single colony was developed.

Prof. Joly has studied the radio-active properties of many lavas especially those of Vesuvius. From his results it appears that the Vesuvius lavas, from 1831 to the present day, are remarkably rich in radium compared with other lavas, the values ranging up to three times the normal for igneous rocks, and sometimes even higher than that. The thorium content, although large in comparison with what generally prevails in the rocks of the St. Gothard rocks, is not so conspicuously higher in the Vesuvius rocks than in the rocks from other volcanoes. The highest reading was obtained from the Krakatau pumice. The Vesuvius lavas appear to show a progressive increase of radioactivity according as they are of more recent eruption, which would indicate that a radioactive substance is being tapped materials richer and richer in radium. Prof. Joly has also discussed the possibility of a connection between radio-activity and volcanic activity.

Not so long ago Prof. Turner proved that gold leaf becomes transparent when heated in contact with glass. This interesting phenomenon has been further studied by Messrs. C. Chapman and J. L. Pomeroy, without the use of glass. In their experiments a piece of gold leaf was held by its edges to a platinum loop and heated in a double-walled quartz crucible. As heating continued it was noticed that the gold leaf became increasingly transparent, and finally the material became so great that the leaf took place in place. Here at a sufficiently high temperature gold leaf contracts. On examining it microscopically the contraction was seen to appear as a series of more granular, sub-sequent experiments with the leaf hanging like a blind with a weight at the bottom to put it under definite tension showed that the contraction was due to the fact that when the leaf began to take place at great rates increase in temperature. Where different tensions were employed the contraction temperature was nearly the same in all, and was about 510  $^{\circ}$  C. With gold leaf heated to this point no contraction took place. The extra transparency when the leaf is heated in contact with glass is attributed to this contraction. It being shown that the leaf breaks on contraction at numerous places, leaving clear intervals between.

# THE MOTOR CAR AND THE ROAD. THE DESTRUCTIVE EFFECT OF HIGH SPEED.

BY LOGAN WALLER PAGE.

DIRECTOR OF THE OFFICE OF PUBLIC ROADS, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

The most serious and difficult problem now engaging the attention of highway engineers all over the world is the preservation of the crushed stone road under the destructive action of motor vehicles, and the devising of new methods of construction adapted to the requirements of this twentieth century traffic. That the automobile has come to stay no one will dispute. It is estimated that there are already about 250,000 machines owned in the United States, and the number is

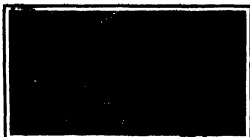
and the iron-tired wheels passing over the road from time to time were depended upon to wear off a sufficient amount of rock dust to replace that carried away by wind and water, and this, under the action of moisture, recomacted, thereby automatically renewing the bond of the road surface. When the road was subject to drought, the conditions were made normal by regular sprinkling. With the advent of the automobile, a totally new condition prevails. The rubber-

the effect were produced by action or vacuum, the action of both front and rear wheels should be somewhat similar at least. It seems apparent to the writer, therefore, that the road best adapted to motor traffic is the road which will best resist this powerful tractive shear. It has already been demonstrated that no plain macadam road is capable of resisting this force.

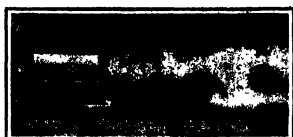
While the destruction of the road may be considered as the most tangible and serious problem, the dust



Twenty miles an hour.



Thirty miles an hour.



Eighty miles an hour.

## THE DUST-RAISING EFFECT OF AN AUTOMOBILE TRAVELING ON AN ORDINARY MACADAM ROAD AT DIFFERENT SPEEDS.

increasing at a marvelous rate. In France, which is credited with having the most superb system of roads in the world, built at a cost of about \$425,000,000, a great International Road Congress was sanctioned by the French government and held at Paris in October, 1908. So alarming were the ravages caused by motor traffic on the costly French road system that the purpose of the meeting was announced to be "The Adaptation of Roads to Modern Methods of Locomotion." In the United States, the problem as yet is a vital one only near the great centers of population, for the reason that but a small percentage of the total mileage of roads is improved, and the motor traffic is largely confined to small areas of country, but it will of necessity become increasingly important with the constantly increasing use of the automobile.

The fact that must give us concern is that the old methods of construction which have stood every test for more than a hundred years are inadequate to meet the conditions of this new form of traffic, and that we are in the midst of a transition period which may eventually revolutionize the science and art of the road builder. The highway engineer of to-day is called upon to ascertain in what way the automobile injures the road what is the exact cause of the injury, and finally to devise an adequate remedy.

When Trécaquet, the great French engineer, made his report to the Council of Bridges and Roads in 1770, he set forth the principles of construction which, as modified and added to by John L. MacAdam in the early part of the nineteenth century, have proven adequate until the twentieth century. These great road builders and their successors sought to secure a road capable of withstanding the wear of iron-tired horse-drawn vehicles, for the motor-driven vehicle had no place in their philosophy. They worked upon the theory that the dust abraded from the crushed stone would fill the voids between the angular fragments and when set would serve as a cement, thereby making the road surface practically a monolith. The iron-shod horse-

tired wheels moving at excessive speed fail to produce any new dust from the rock, but the tremendous shearing effect of the driving wheels forces the loose dust on the road into the air in great clouds, and, as the body of the machine displaces a large volume of air, the deflected currents carry the rock dust off the road, thereby effecting a permanent loss of the all-essential binder. It follows that the road is soon stripped of its fine binding material, and the upper or wearing course of the stone is exposed. These stones, robbed of the binding material, are soon loosened by the great shear of the driving wheels, leaving the road badly ravaged and disintegrated. It is, of course, apparent that the effects described are greatly intensified on curves where skidding is most frequent.

Highway and mechanical engineers have given much study to the action of the automobile on the road surface, and many ingenious theories have been advanced. While it is true that the slipping of the tire, the skidding, the shape of the car body, and the suction of the pneumatic tire all contribute to produce the effect, the most conclusive experiments seem to warrant the assertion that the great tractive force or shear exerted by the driving wheels of motor cars is the main factor of injury. A series of tests conducted by the United States Office of Public Roads in 1908 produced some interesting results along this line. Cars of various weights and types were run over a measured course at different rates of speed and right-angle photographs taken of each run. A 50-horse-power car stripped for racing, weighing with driver and mechanic about 2,500 pounds, was driven over a stretch of road first at five miles an hour, each run being increased at the rate of five miles an hour until a speed of 80 miles was attained. Up to 50 miles an hour little or no effect was produced on the road, but from 50 miles an hour the effect was striking with each increase in speed. Little or no effect is produced by the front wheels. Practically the entire disturbance of the road is produced by the rear or driving wheels. If

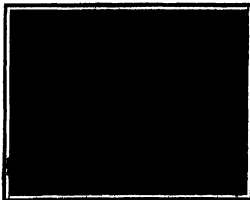
nuisance as intensified by motor traffic is most far-reaching in its indirect effects. It has been claimed that nine-tenths of the dust produced by man comes from streets and highways and someone has very aptly termed the public road the "national dust factory." The effect of the huge clouds of dust upon health must be very great, as most forms of disease are transmitted by this aero-borne dust. The damage to crops growing adjacent to the public highway through the dust nuisance is real and tangible, and particularly is this true of small fruits. So extreme has this condition become in certain districts that no attempt is made to raise fruit near dusty roads. Its effect upon some classes of live stock is most severe, cattle and horses in particular being susceptible to the germs of tuberculosis carried by the dust. The automobile cannot be held responsible for these forms of damage, but it has undoubtedly intensified them. The road builder is, therefore, called upon in many cases to mitigate the dust nuisance by devising a form of treatment which might be considered a palliative.

The efforts of progressive highway engineers are directed, therefore, primarily toward the preservation of our stone-surfaced roads and the construction of dustless roads, and secondly to minimizing or mitigating the dust nuisance. The results so far accomplished have been for the most part experimental, and but little attention has been given to the actual composition and characteristics of the materials employed.

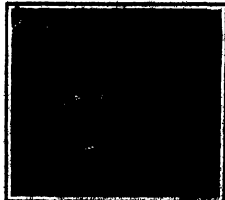
It is evident from even the slightest consideration of the subject that the solution of the problem must come, for the most part, from the highway engineer rather than the automobile manufacturer and the legislator. Manufacturers have, to some extent, tried to reduce the dust-raising tendency of their machines by various mechanical devices. Experiments in England brought out the fact that cars fitted with bodies having either very great or very slight clearance raised less dust than those with an average clearance. Some novel devices were tried with more or less success, the



SPRINKLING TAIL OF A ROAD AT JACKSON, TENN.



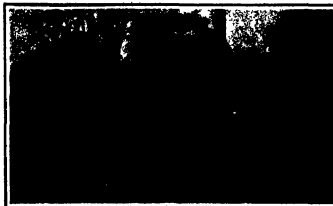
WAGON FOR FURNISHING ENGINE INTO A DRAIN.



SPRINKLING TAIL OF A ROAD AT JACKSON, TENN.

best results being obtained from a car with a flat steel bottom overlapping the sides of the car, and shoes instead of mud guards. The under screen was six inches from the ground and projected beyond the radiator in front to catch deflected wind from the nose of the car and pass it between the screen and the car, instead of between the car and the road. It is an evident fact that the greater the speed the greater the amount of dust, and the greater the damage to the road. Steps have already been taken to combat the speed mania by the enactment of the most stringent speed regulations. Much difficulty is found, however, in enforcing these regulations.

The experiments conducted by highway engineers, particularly in France, England, and the United States, have been directed toward providing a stone-surfaced road with

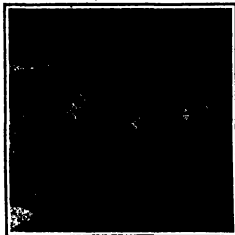


CONSTRUCTION OF BITUMINOUS MACADAM ROAD BY PENETRATION OR GROUTING METHOD. KRAVY TAR IS APPLIED ON THE TOP COVERS OF STONE

a binder more powerful than the rock dust. For the purpose of presenting intelligently the experiments thus far conducted with special binders, the term "dust preventives" has been applied to all of the various binders having for their object either the suppression or the prevention of dust. These may be divided into two classes, temporary and permanent. The temporary binders serve merely as palliatives and require frequent renewal, the permanent binders, so called, enter into the structure of the road as a constituent element, and are either incorporated with the other materials at the time of the construction or applied later by a surface treatment.

In the case of temporary binders may be included water, salt solutions, light oils and tars, and oil and tar emulsions, while the

(Continued on page 47.)



MIXING A BATCH OF MATERIAL OFF THE ROAD BY HAND MACHINE.



BITUMINOUS BINDER APPLIED WITH BROOMS FROM STEEL WHEELBARROWS.



TARRED STONE DELIVERED ON THE ROAD ON PREVIOUSLY COATED WORK



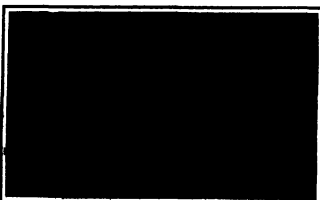
HAND MIXING OF BITUMINOUS BINDER ON THE ROAD.



SMITH CONCRETE MIXER USED FOR MIXING ROAD-MAKING MATERIAL.



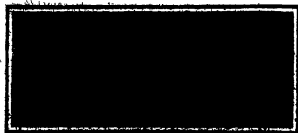
AN OLIVE LEASE ROAD AT WHITWOOD, MASS.



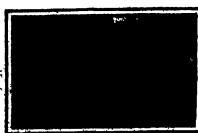
APPLYING SPECIAL TAR BINDER AT WHITWOOD, MASS.



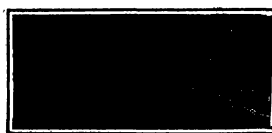
STONE ROAD BEFORE ROLLING



MIXING THE CONSTRUCTION OF A "CURB" CURB CONCRETE. THIS FORM OF CURB ROAD TENDS TO DANGER THAT THE CURB BEING MADE TO DANGER.



ROAD IN FAIRMOUNT PARK, PHILADELPHIA, AFTER BEING SUBJECTED TO SPEEDING AUTOMOBILES.



APPLYING A FINAL COAT OF TAR TO A ROAD BUILT ESPECIALLY FOR HORSE-DRAWN AUTOMOBILES TRAFFIC.





## MOTOR BALLOON GUNS. AUTOMOBILE VS. AIRSHIP



It is to their credit that the manufacturers of artillery should not currently have grappled with the new problem presented by the development of successful aeroplanes and dirigible balloons and so quickly have designed special ordnance to meet the new form of warfare. The firm which has been most active in this direction is the great Krupp Company, in having brought out several types of gun, capable of firing at the high angles which will be necessary in order to hit the rapidly moving airships and planes of the future. Because of the extreme mobility of the new method of attack from the air, it is obviously necessary that the means adopted to resist it shall be capable of a corresponding mobility. This is especially true where the warfare is likely to be carried on against more or less rapidly moving bodies of troops.

Now the automobile is cause of its speed, weight, and strength, is particularly adapted, not only for carrying light automatic guns but for affording a platform from which they may be fired with a reasonable degree of accuracy. Indeed the artillery motor car is the natural counterpart of the familiar armored train running on the rails of the regular steam railroad. And although the military automobiles will be largely restricted to the roads, and will leave them only under exceptional conditions of smooth and fairly level country, the automobile balloon gun will find a field of usefulness in future campaigns whose limits can only be determined by the hard experience of a regular campaign.

Of the three rapid-fire-gun motor cars herewith shown, one is American and the other two are of German make. One of our illustrations shows a rapid fire balloon gun, mounted on an armored motor car of 60 horse-power. The latter, in spite of its weight of three and a quarter tons, is capable of making a speed of 45 kilometers per hour and mounting grades of 25 per cent, even when the roads are of poor quality. The gun is also shown mounted on a semi-armored car. This effective weapon has a muzzle energy of 24.8 meter tons and an extreme range at an angle of 45 degrees of 7,800 meters. At the maximum elevation of the gun, the shell has a maximum height of trajectory of 7,800 meters.

The armoring of the motor car consists of nickel steel plate, 3 millimeters in thickness, and the gun itself is provided with a special shield capable of a wide arc of aiming. The wheels, also, are covered in with nickel steel plating. The ammunition is carried in a box underneath the back seat, and it will be noted that the front of the car is provided with side railings.

The guns are provided with shells of a special design, suitable for attacking the gun line of a dirigible or the canvas or rubber-cloth covered surfaces of an aeroplane. To assist in tracing the flight of the shells, they are furnished, at the base, with a smoke-producing substance which is ignited at the

instant of firing the gun, and emits a distinct trail of smoke during the flight of the shell. This gives the gunner some indication of the error in his sighting.

But it will be a very difficult matter to score upon a fast-flying machine speeding mile-high above the earth. The most promising form of attack is with the aerosol, which, if burst at the right distance in front of the object, will envelop it in a perfect spray of jagged shell fragments.

Another illustration shows the McClean-Linsack automatic rapid-fire gun, as mounted on a 4-ton Packard

ing, for that State will make 115,000 of the total production of 302,000 cars scheduled for 1910. Four other States adjoining will contribute 70,075 machines. The Middle West may therefore be said to be the real home of the automobile industry. Illinois is scheduled to make 15,500 cars in 1910, Indiana, 21,035 cars, Ohio, 23,750, and Wisconsin, 11,000. In the East, Connecticut will make 2,100 cars, Massachusetts, 4,100 cars, New York, 10,000 cars, Pennsylvania, 2,800 cars, and Rhode Island 800 cars.

These figures are taken from statistics obtainable in connection with eighty of the prominent automobile companies, and are startling to say the least, both as to their bearing on the location of the motor car industry, and on the importance of the automobile industry as a whole. In addition, it must be remembered that there are fifty other firms making 100 cars or less, with 160 makers turning out a few cars or experimenting.

Just why the middle West should lead in motor car manufacture is worthy of some consideration, especially when it is remembered that much of the early experimenting in motor cars and early manufacturing was done at plants in Buffalo and Tarrytown, N. Y., Hartford, N. J., Bridgeport and Hartford, Conn., Philadelphia, Pa., and other Eastern States.

Because of the tremendous growth of the industry in the past ten years, and the amount of capital invested in the industry, the settlement of an industry like that of automobile making in any particular section of the country, is a condition worthy of thought. The middle West may be said to be in the center of the situation, not alone in the making of cars, but in the making of tires, parts, and accessories. For this condition, we must first give credit to the industrial enterprises of the middle West, for the securing of big factories, for the enterprising methods of its boards of trade, and for the readiness to contribute money toward the securing of new industrial enterprises, like that of motor-car building. Next must be considered the labor situation, which is excellent in the middle West, especially in the matter of hands for automatic machinery. Most of the big machinery making companies are in Ohio or Indiana, where machinery of excellent character are to be had in large numbers.

Finally being the center of the machinery trade, the middle West has been the headquarters for raw material to a very large extent, at least after it has been put through its first or second process, as in the case of rubber, steel, leather, wood, brass, and other things used in the modern motor car.

More important than all is the fact that the middle West is the center for transportation, a most important item when the matter of freight on automobiles is considered. Because of their high value, automobiles contribute very heavily to the railroads, and the matter of freight on incoming material on outgoing cars for an entire thousand miles or so, means an added cost, which every manufacturer tries to avoid. While it is true (continued on page 49.)



HEAVY MCGLEAN-LINSACK AUTOMATIC GUN MOUNTED ON A PACKARD 5-TON TRUCK.

truck, for tests which were carried out last year at Cleveland, Ohio. Lieut-Col. O. W. Linsack, of the Ordnance Department of the United States Army, and Dr. S. W. McClean, designer of the gun, had charge of the tests, being assisted by the Standard Automobile Company, the Cleveland dealer for Packard motor cars and trucks.

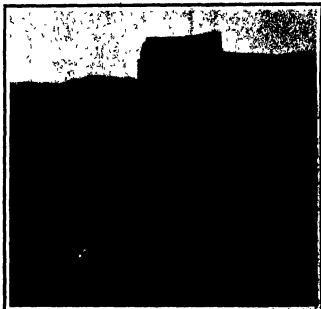
The gun fired 3-pound shots at the rate of 100 per minute, the range being 3 1/2 miles. Shots were tried with the brakes of the car set, and also released. When the brakes were set the truck did not move, and no shock was felt by those surrounding the gun on the truck platform. With the brakes released there was a slight movement on the recoil, but no shock. The designer of the gun recommends its use on a truck such as the Packard, but armored for war purposes.

We hope to publish additional information regarding the results of additional trials of this gun, which are being made at Sandy Hook and Springfield for the army, and at Indian Head for the navy.

THE MIDDLE WEST AND THE AUTOMOBILE INDUSTRY.

BY ALFRED BARTON.

Michigan leads all States in motor-car manufacture.



BALLOON-ATTACK RAPID FIRE GUN, WITH SHELLS, MOUNTED ON COMPLETELY ARMORED CAR. WEIGHT 2 1/2 TONS.



THE SAME GUN MOUNTED ON A SEMI-ARMORED CAR. OVER THE MIDDLE-WESTERN NORTH.

## ANTI JOY RIDE DEVICES.

BY HARRY WILKIN PERRY.

So great a proportion of the many fatal or otherwise very serious automobile accidents chronicled almost daily during the motoring season is the result of the use of cars without the owners' knowledge or consent, that it seems as if the time has come when the public welfare demands the general equipment of automobiles with some means whereby the unauthorized use of machines can be positively prevented. If matters continue as they have, it will become incumbent on every law-abiding and gentlemanly owner of an automobile to adopt voluntarily such protective measures, even if laws compelling it are not enacted for the public welfare.

"Joy riding"—as the wild running of a motor car by a partially incriminated driver accompanied by several hilarious companions has come to be called in the automobile vernacular—is of several kinds. It may be indulged in by the lawful owner or right user of the machine, by strangers passing through the streets and finding an unattended automobile standing by the curb which can be appropriated, and by chauffeurs employed by the owner or by employees of the public garage where the car is kept, who take it out, casually at night, without the owner's or the garage proprietor's knowledge.

Laws have existed for some years in a number of States making it a misdemeanor for anyone to meddle with an automobile standing in the street, and prohibiting users of motor cars from leaving their machines unattended with the engine running. During the past winter there has been much activity in legislative circles for the enactment of laws to prevent "joy riding." The New York Legislature passed a bill containing a provision prohibiting anyone from taking or tampering with a motor vehicle without the owner's consent, under penalty of a fine, imprisonment, or deprivation of the right to use the public road for six months, or any or all such penalties. The Colorado Legislature passed a bill to go into effect and to be enforced immediately upon its passage, as "in the opinion of the General Assembly an emergency exists," prohibiting any person from tampering with or entering or starting any motor car without the

knowledge and consent of the owner or owners, whether an individual or a corporation, and fixing the penalties for infraction at a fine of not less than \$50 nor more than \$300 or imprisonment for not less than 30 days nor more than 90 days or both such fine and imprisonment.

Such laws will doubtless have a deterrent effect, but

in the way of producing a device that will act as a certain check on the use of the car and yet enable the chauffeur or the mechanic to clean and adjust the engine, test the ignition and generally keep the car "tuned up" to maximum working efficiency, are numerous and complex. Chauffeurs and mechanics are clever and resourceful or they are unworthy of their hire. A nail, screw, or piece of wire can be made to take the place of a removable switch plate or the star wheel or spur gear that drives the flexible shaft of a recording instrument can be disconnected. Again, if any operating part of the motor car is positively locked against action, such as the wheels, steering gear, or transmission, it may be difficult to move the machine about in the garage, as frequently becomes necessary for washing, repairing, or in event of a fire when all the cars have to be hurriedly pushed into the street.

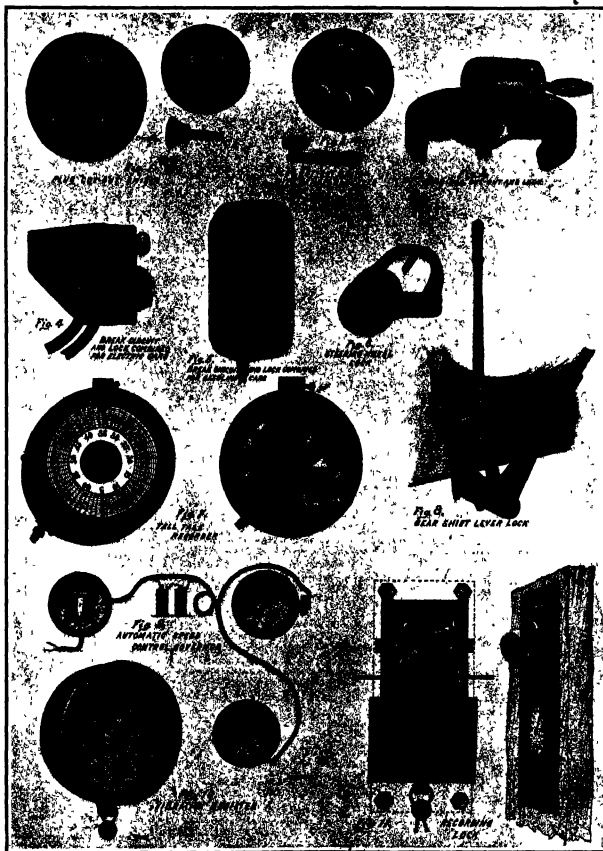
Mechanical devices that have been invented with the object of affording partial or complete protection to the owner against the unauthorized use or over speeding of his car may be divided into groups as follows:

1. Devices to prevent the engine from being started when the car is left standing in the street embracing (A) ignition switches with removable contact plugs (B) ignition switches that can be locked in inoperative position
2. Devices to lock essential operative parts, embracing (A) steering wheel lock and (B) speed change lever lock
3. Speed limit

ing device, embracing (A) instruments interlocked with a speedometer and the speed or throttle control so that a given speed cannot be exceeded, (B) audible signals sounded automatically when a predetermined speed is attained, and (C) speed indicating devices with large dials prominently placed so that they can be read at a distance by policemen and others.

4. Vehicle movement recording devices embracing (A) vibration recording instruments of the piezoelectric type, and (B) clockwork registers in which permanent records of the time, extent and rate of movement are

(Continued on page 54.)



ANTI JOY RIDE DEVICES.

they are difficult of enforcement and are punitive rather than preventive, applying the punishment after the evil has been committed. The abuse of automobiles as distinguished from their proper and most desirable use has reached such serious proportions as to call for the general application of mechanical and automatic means whereby the unauthorized use of a machine can be positively prevented or detected the first time it occurs and the punishment made to follow swiftly upon its commission.

Inventors have wrestled with this problem for several years, and a variety of devices have been put on the market to fulfill the desired ends. The difficulties

# WHAT THE MOTOR VEHICLE IS DOING FOR THE FARMER.

BY WALTER LANGFORD.

Less than five years ago farmers generally looked upon the automobile with bitterness and condemned it as a "toy of the rich." Today, there are farms comprising hundreds and even thousands of acres, on which nearly all of the heaviest work is done by motor vehicles. There is hardly any part of farm work that cannot be done more quickly and with greater satis-

faction and time-saving ability of the motor car. He balances off the cost of a tenth or a twentieth of a gallon of gasoline per mile traveled against a third or half bushel of oats a day at 85 cents a bushel, whether the horse is working or is standing in the stall on a rainy or a winter day, and reckons the time saved to himself as mainly pure gain.

room, high clearance above the road, a thoroughly protected engine and transmission, reasonable price and low fuel consumption and maintenance cost have concentrated toward making this model popular with the rural buyers. From the statements of hundreds of users, it is found that the average cost of upkeep is not more than two-thirds that of keeping a horse. The



WINTER HIGH-WHEELED MOTOR WAGON CARRYING A LOAD OF FARM PRODUCE.



CARRYING CRATED CHICKENS AND EGGS TO MARKET.

faction by the use of motor power—either applied to a self-moving machine or in the stationary form—than with horseflesh. Whether it is making a quick trip to town with a load of butter, eggs, fruit, or vegetables, to the creamery with the evening cans of fresh milk, to church with the family on Sabbath morning, doing the spring and fall plowing, cultivating, reaping, threshing—the motor vehicle in its varied forms has become the latest ally of the progressive, prosperous farmer.

It has been a matter of general knowledge and common comment in automobile circles that extraordinary numbers of motor cars have been going into the remote sections of Kansas, Nebraska, Minnesota, the Dakotas, Colorado, and even Montana, Oklahoma, and Texas during the past season. The statement has been made by a man identified with the trade and presumed to be posted that fully one-quarter of the purchases of motor cars west of the Mississippi during the season of 1909 were made by farmers, and this means a good many when the combined output of the manufacturers of the country for the year aggregated in the neighborhood of 75,000 machines. Some of the little communities in the Middle West, with a population numbering only hundreds or at most a few thousand inhabitants have begun to boast of possessing more motor cars in proportion to population than any other city or town in the country, and to prove it, they congregate all the cars in the village in Main Street and have a group photograph taken.

The farmer, who has long distances to go for everything, from a keg of nails to a paper of tobacco, and who works early and late to make up time lost partly in going to town, has not been slow to appreciate the

scattered all the way from the Atlantic to the Pacific coasts there are small fruit and vegetable growers, dairy farmers and poultry raisers who make a daily practice of carrying light loads of produce to market in the tonneau or on the rear deck of ordinary light touring cars. They can leave the horses to work in the field and can make the trip in a third or quarter of the time formerly consumed thereby gaining just that much additional time to be devoted to more work or to reading, visiting, attendance at concerts, lectures, etc.

The ordinary four or five-passenger touring car of moderate power and reasonable price is most extensively used by farmers. Some of the accompanying illustrations show how such a car is put to practical uses on the farm with the rear seat removed. This is the general utility automobile of the agricultural sections and is used for a great variety of purposes. With it the farmer drives out to his grain field to superintend the threshing, runs down to the pasture with a reel of wire to repair the fence, runs into town with the horses' collars and harness to have them mended, carries cans of milk to the creamery or crates of live poultry to the express office.

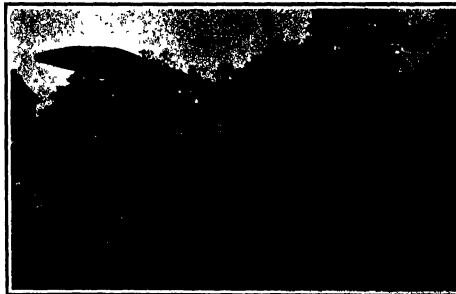
Observing the growing demand by farmers for a car for all-around work a wide-awake automobile manufacturing company in Kenosha, Wis., about two years ago began advertising in the farm papers a double-cylinder light touring car at a moderate price, and inside of a year had sold between 500 and 600 cars in the rural districts. There are now probably between 1,500 and 2,000 of its machines owned by men who live on farms practically all of whom use them as general utility machines. An easily removable ton-

neau of today is well informed regarding the mechanical features that adapt an automobile to his requirements and is a careful buyer. He can safely carry 500 pounds on the rear of a 20-horse-power car and can drive ten miles to town in from half to three-quarters of an hour with the load.

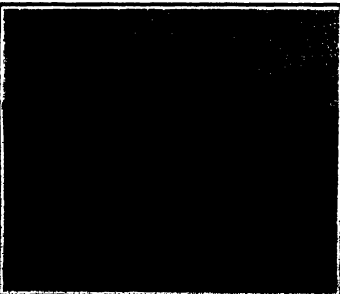
Largely as a result also of the farmers' demands there has been developed during the last three or four years a type of motor car called the high-wheeled buggy. There are upward of fifty companies in the country now actively engaged in building this style of motor car especially for use in country districts where the roads are rough, hilly, and, according to the season, deep with mud, sand, or snow. They are very low in price, simple in construction and operation, and answer the purposes of many rural dwellers very well. They use only about a gallon of gasoline to fifteen or twenty miles traveled, and a set of narrow solid tires, costing say \$35, will wear a year or more with no expense for repair of punctures or blow-outs.

Within a year or two there has been added to the two-passenger runabout and four-passenger survey models a high-wheel open-bed light delivery wagon model, of the demountable wagon type, especially suited to farmers' use. A load of 500 to 1,000 pounds can be carried in the space beneath and back of the front seat, and in some makes an extra double seat can be set in the back to accommodate extra passengers when the vehicle is to be used as a passenger conveyance.

Other light work wagons with open-bed bodies particularly suited for agricultural use but fitted with longer bodies and having a load capacity of 1,000 pounds or more and costing \$1,000 and upward, are



AN AUTOMOBILE TRACTION ENGINE USED FOR DRIVING A THRESHING MACHINE.



A MODERN HIGH-WHEELED FARM WAGON ON THE ROAD.

TYPES OF AGRICULTURAL AUTOMOBILES.

manufactured by several companies in Chicago, Syracuse, High, Ill., Delaware, Mich., and Little, Pa. They are constantly suited to carrying to market good sized loads of vegetables, fruit, dairy and hays and produce weighing from 1,000 to 3,000 pounds, and for hauling back loads of feed, fertilizer, fencing and building materials, farm machinery, and so on. The high wheels give the axles and driving mechanism a good road clearance, and the construction is of a heavy and durable as well as simple character.

Numerous cases might be given of motor cars put to special service in connection with farming. In Maryland there is a high-class dairy farm where motor delivery wagons are used altogether to distribute milk among the consumers in the vicinity, and in Indianapolis a large milk company is using a 1½-ton and a 3-ton gasoline truck in the collection of milk from dairy farms within a radius of twenty-five miles of the city, which was formerly shipped by the interurban electric railways or by horse and wagon. In England a large produce grower sends his fresh vegetables to market in a huge motor van, the roof and tailboard of which, as well as the inside, are piled with green goods. These examples seem to forebadow the time, not very distant, perhaps, when farmers will find it cheaper and more convenient to ship all of their farm products to market on motor trucks than to haul them with horses and wagons. Possibly the trucks will be owned by local express companies organized for the purpose, which will charge a reasonable price for haulage, so that it will pay the farmer better to keep his horses—if he needs any—than at work in the field, and he will not need to invest any capital in the motor trucks. Doubtless some of the transporting companies will use motor tractors, which will run over regular routes every morning and pick up a string of farm wagons loaded with produce, hauling them to market and back again for a fixed charge. A single tractor should be able to haul four or five such wagons over good roads.

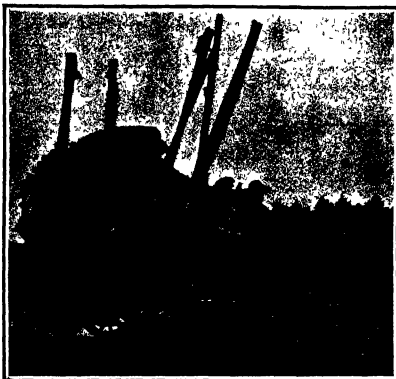
In Connecticut a three-ton truck is regularly used for hauling grain and carrying all sorts of farm supplies and products for a 1,500-acre farm. This is one of the many fancy estates conducted in the East by wealthy owners largely as a personal hobby yet at the same time as a profitable investment. The truck represents an outlay of \$5,000 and is kept in a special garage for work motor vehicles which are to be used extensively on the farm.

A ranch of several thousand acres in Montana is conducted entirely without horses, the plowing, sowing, cultivating, reaping, threshing, and hauling of the grain to the railroad being done by motor tractors and motor wagons. We have had the horseless street car for twenty years, the "horseless carriage" for ten, and now we have the horseless farm. May we hope some day for the horseless city?

While the foregoing examples are isolated cases and apply to farming on an extensive scale with ample capital, they point to great possibilities for the future use of self-propelled vehicles in farm work, utilizing gasoline, kerosene or denatured alcohol as fuel. The farmer with a small acreage who would not be justified in buying a motor tractor for his own use, will be able to hire his plowing and threshing done by companies operating motor tractors, as for many years he

has had his threshing done by itinerant steam threshing outfits. And, incidentally, the work will be done cheaper, there will be no danger of fire from flying sparks, there will be little or no water to haul, and there will be fewer men to feed.

In this country, as well as in England and France, there are large companies that make a specialty of



AN AVERY FARM TRUCK HAULING HAY.

building small farm tractors for universal tractor and stationary power work. A company in Minneapolis makes an 8-horse-power tractor weighing 5,000 pounds for such work as operating hay presses, corn shellers etc. and for drawing wagons and portable machines of this class on the road. In York Pa. is another large company that makes motor tractors and traction engines in ten sizes, from 1,000 to 25,000 pounds in weight. The smallest is rated at 1½ to 2-horse-power and is intended for all sorts of farm work such as hauling the stone-boat, churning, pumping feed cutting, etc.

American motor tractors used for plowing and threshing usually develop from 12 to 35 horse-power and weigh from 5,000 to 20,000 pounds. They haul gang plows turning from two to eight furrows at a time. One of these—a 15-horse-power tractor built by the largest harvesting machinery company in the world—plowed 1.09 acres of "gunbo" soil with a three-furrow 14-inch bottom plow in an hour and a quarter on a consumption of 1½ gallons of gasoline per acre at an international competition held in Winnipeg last July.

A "wagon tractor," built in Peoria by a great agricultural implement works for general utility

costs an acre for fuel. In a ten-hour day 1½ acre could be plowed for about \$3.20, not including labor. This wagon tractor is a very interesting vehicle. It was designed particularly for farm purposes by men who are familiar with the peculiar requirements, and combines in one machine a truck for carrying loads on its own body, a tractor for drawing plows and other farm machinery, and a power plant for driving threshing machines, hay balers and other stationary machinery by belt. It will take the place of several teams and wagons on the farm.

Nowadays, on the farm as well as in the manufacturing it is necessary to do the largest amount of work in the shortest time in order to make an under taking successful. This is recognized by the progressive farmer and farm machinery builders and to a large extent the advantages of the motor car and motor tractor are appreciated by builders of farm wagons and buggies. Most of the leaders in these fields are now offering their customers a motor buggy, a motor car, a motor wagon, or a motor tractor.

#### The Modern Electric Automobile.

BY BEN WHEELER, D. E. E.

The heavy cumbersome electric car or brougham of earlier days has cleared the field for the light run-about Victoria or interior-driven coupe. Low weight means more speed and a greater mileage radius. It was looked upon as a great performance when one of the earlier types of electric automobiles traveled forty miles on a single charge of the battery at a comparatively low speed. The modern electric automobile will negotiate about twice the distance at a much greater speed. The most vital components of an electric automobile are the motor and controller, two parts which are of different design on about every other make. For this reason the purchaser must give very close attention. The most desirable motor is not that which tends to drive a car up a hill at a comparatively high speed. A heavy battery discharge is thus induced, which is not very detrimental to the battery. Of two cars traveling at the same speed on the level, that one will travel the faster on a grade whose controller was not changed. The motor of this faster

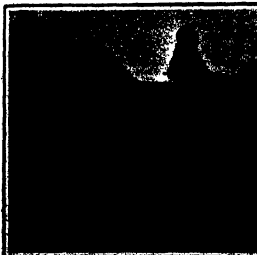


WITH A BOX OF TOOLS OF THE REAR BOX THE FASTEST REPAIRS ARE QUICKLY EFFECTED.

car is designed for a smaller increase of torque in proportion to the decrease of the speed. Even if this difference in speed is very small, say one-half mile an hour, the faster car will have to pay dearly for it in current as well as in decrease of mileage radius and in battery wear. The good designer will find a middle way. He will strive for the highest battery efficiency. It is by no means difficult to construct a

fast electric, as the power is unlimited for a short distance. The art is to apply the power at disposal in the most all-around satisfactory way and to design a carriage which is reliable and cheap to maintain.

In the line of various controllers the drum type for good reasons seems to have grown to the great favor. The various speed changes can be obtained without arcing or burning, and a gradual increase of speed is effected from step to step with a small increase of (Continued on page 52)



INTERNATIONAL HARVESTER TRACTOR WAGON.

#### HALF A DOZEN CANS OF MILK ARE TAKEN TO THE GRAMMERY AND THE EMPTY CANS BROUGHT BACK.

purpose in the field and on the road, was tested at the same trials. Coupled to a two-furrow 14-inch gang plow, it turned over 106 acres in 1 hour 25 minutes on a consumption equivalent to 236 gallons of gasoline per acre. This would amount to about 60

# THE MODERN LOW-PRICED CAR.

BY JOSEPH ROGERS.

The automobile buyer faces no such questions in 1910 as confronted him a few years ago, when all that was expected of a car was that it would run. At that time the gasoline engine was not so much the engineer's undertaking as it is today, and all of the parts and appendages were undergoing a process of evolution that resulted in vast differences between the models of two successive years. Each maker had some peculiarity of design, and the selection of a car was complicated by the difficulty of getting definite information on performance.

There were reliable cars, of course, but their initial cost and the expense of operation made their ownership possible only to the very well-to-do. The car that could be bought by the man of moderate income required close attention and the adjustments and repairs that were a constant necessity left him little time for anything else. If these were in the hands of a repair man the monthly bills were out of all proportion to the mileage covered and the pleasure obtained. Automobiling at that time was unquestionably a diversion for the rich, and it is popularly supposed that such is still the case, but as a matter of fact, the man of moderate income can today purchase and use a car at an expense that is well within the bounds of reason.

The primary cause for this is found in the relatively close understanding of engine and car design that obtains today. The systematic engineering work that has been carried on in the large factories has resulted in a refinement in design and an approach to a standard that place automobile manufacturing on as economical a basis as is possible in the production of any other machine.

The moderate price at which an automobile may be bought is not due to the use of poor material and cheap labor, on the contrary. The highest grade of today is better in quality than the highest grade cars of six years ago.

In the early days of the automobile industry the manufacturer was under the necessity of making all of the parts, today, the factories actually making over 75 per cent of the parts that they use are in small proportion to the number of producers. A few years ago, when a manufacturer produced a car, he made the wheels, the axles, the springs, the gears, the pistons, the valves, the speed gears or other parts, he conceived the fact, today, a constantly increasing number of firms make it no secret that their cars are assembled in whole or in part. It is in this way that the economies of the collation of the medium priced automobile is largely due.

The manufacturer of a complete car is under the necessity of maintaining an experimental department in which he can try out suggested improvements on all parts of the chassis. This is expensive work, and a proportion of the cost of the department must be included in the price of every car sold. The maker of an assembled car is under no such handicap, for each of the firms with which he does business will carry on only such experimental work as is required for its special line, and the expense is borne by so great an output that the individual proportion is negligible.

There was a time when an assembled car was undoubtedly open to suspicion, for however desirous the makers of its parts might be to do good work they had neither the knowledge nor the facilities that would make it possible. These same companies now possess enormous plants, their designers and equipment are the best obtainable, and their products embody the latest and best in scientific and mechanical knowledge. Assemblers thus have parts at their command that are of a high degree of excellence, and can buy them at prices that are far below what was charged for the weak and faulty parts of former years.

The low prices at which assembled cars can profitably be sold have forced the builders of cars of competing grades to manufacture on a very large scale, in order to bring down a cost that is economically sensible only with quantity production. Such a firm equips its factory with jigs and special tools for every operation, and makes it an invariable rule to accept no order that calls for a slight deviation from the standard specifications.

When a manufacturer turns out twenty thousand cars a year, it is not only justifiable but necessary for him to invent very considerable sums in special machinery of all kinds that for a smaller output would be inadvisable. One manufacturer has spent \$40,000 for dies to produce a rear axle housing, on a production of one thousand cars a year, and another for this would be \$40. With an output of twenty thousand cars, however, the charge of \$2 against each is little enough for the purchaser to pay for so excellent a feature.

A recent development that illustrates the endeavor

to reduce manufacturing costs is the establishment by some of the leading producers of assembling shops at the large centers. To these are shipped parts in sufficient quantities to build the cars in the most economical way, and as there is no equipment of machine tools, the expense is slight. The freight rate on unassembled parts is much lower than on complete cars, and the saving effected in time and convenience as well as in money makes the system a satisfactory one.

However it may have been in the past the present day manufacturer of moderate-priced cars makes no more than a legitimate profit. One of the largest producers stated recently that his profit on a \$1,000 car is less than \$100, this is not excessive when one considers his enormous investment in material and parts, his really vast equipment of machine tools, and his labor expense.

It has been said that any average engineer can design a car to sell at \$4,000, but that the greatest skill is necessary when the selling price is to be less than \$1,000. However that may be, the medium and low priced cars on the market show exceedingly clever designing and bear every indication of the highest grade of mechanical engineering. Being light in weight, the material entering into their construction is selected with the greatest care, and it is typical of the automobile industry that many of the alloy steels in common use were hardly more than laboratory curiosities a few years ago.

The whole tendency of design is to reduce weight and machinery and assembling costs, but it is rare to see a car where strength and durability have been sacrificed for economy. One of the features of the 1910 cars is the casting of the four cylinders in one piece, which results in a considerable saving in weight and cost, with no apparent reduction in strength or ability. The increasing tendency to adopt the gravity system of water circulation is another economical move, for it permits the suppression of the pump. The mechanical lubricators that were formerly in general use have been almost entirely abandoned, being replaced in the crank case which is not only less exposed to build and assemble, but makes lubrication as positive and unfailing as it will be. The mag valve, a new feature of the 1910 cars, is another of very low price, and quite frequently it is the sole means of ignition. An advantage that may be gained through its use is that the spark may be maintained at a constant point, and therefore the speed and its connection may be done away with. The location of the clutch and brake pedals on the gear case reduces the cost of assembling, for when they are hung on a bar passing at right angles to the frame as was the practice in former years, accurate fitting is an absolute and costly necessity. When the engine, change speed gear and rear axle are separate units, assembling is complicated by the necessity for setting them accurately in line, in a great number of 1910 cars the change speed gear is either built in with the engine or the rear axle, and the cost of assembling is reduced in consequence.

In spite of the excellence of the 1910 cars, it must not be assumed that the limit of perfection has been reached. Some of the work turned out by the designers shows that they have followed a common path, but in many cases there are improvements that are not easy to reconcile. The perfected car cannot come until the efficiency of one definite construction has been recognized, and its proper proportions demonstrated. The present variety of designs if it leads to evidence in itself that there is still much to learn, for otherwise, as an example, there would be less difference in the dimensions of engine bearings than in the number of the cylinders and the displacement of the same power. The relation of bore to stroke is the subject of a vast difference of opinion at the present time, and even the relative lengths of the connecting rods are not means fixed.

Having produced cars that will run, and that can be depended on for steady service, the problems now before the designer have to do with the increase of efficiency and economy of operation. The greatest problem time it is desirable if any manufacturer knows what proportion of the power of his engine is absorbed in operating the valves, or in driving the magnets and pump, but these and other far more complicated details must be worked out in his future models.

If the principles of the present engines are adhered to, the coming years will bring a closer and more scientific knowledge of the operation of the engine, and a greater understanding of the relative dimensions that serve the order of usage. For the car owner this will mean greater economy in the use of fuel, increased simplicity in construction, and a reduction in price that is the invariable result of standardization.

## The Wright Test and Aviation in America.

The granting last week by Judge Hazel of a preliminary injunction restraining Glenn Curtiss and the Hering-Curtiss Company from making any patent claim as flying their well-known type of biplane has quite taken by surprise almost everyone versed in patent law, as such an injunction has been granted very rarely, if ever, before upon an unadvised preliminary injunction, as in the case of the Holden patent covering the use of a clutch between the motor and the road wheels of an automobile—a case in which an infringement was much more apparent—such an injunction was not granted. The granting of the injunction at this time has had two results. In the first place it has intimidated a good many inventors who were hard at work upon the perfecting of the aeroplane, and secondly it has encouraged the Wrights to attempt the practical construction of flying machines. With a million-dollar company back of them, and with orders already booked aggregating more than this figure, the granting of the preliminary injunction gives them practical control of aviation in America. A second step in this direction occurred on January 4th, when aviator Paulhan was served with a notice to appear in the New York District Court on the day next to show cause why he should not be enjoined from flying his Farman biplane in the United States. As he is booked to make flights at the Los Angeles aviation meeting from the 10th to the 20th of this month, this is a serious blow to the first aviation meet held in this country.

The death of Leon Delagrange from a fall sustained as a result of the breaking of a wing of his Bleriot monoplane while flying in a 20-mile wind at Pau, France, on the 4th inst., has given aviation another setback that it will take a long time and many experimental demonstrations to overcome. Four lives lost within the last four months is a record by no means encouraging to the devotees of aviation, and the loss of life is due to encourage flight in this country, none of the aeroplane factories now to be started will do much business for some time to come.

## Hydrogen for Inflating Pneumatic Tires.

The inflation of an automobile tire with a hand pump is no laborious an operation that some automobilists very rightly consider a nuisance, and with which a tire can be inflated easily and rapidly. The cylinders, however, may be found empty when they are most needed. Recently a French manufacturer of aluminum pipes has conceived the idea of replacing the air by hydrogen, generated by the action of water on specially prepared aluminum waste. In presence of alkalies, aluminum decomposes water into oxygen and hydrogen. The oxygen combines with the aluminum and the hydrogen is set free. The method of operation is very simple. About 10 ounces of granulated aluminum and 16 ounces of water are introduced into an air tube of the capacity (5½ pints) which is commonly furnished by the great tire makers, and the bronze plug is quickly screwed down. In a few seconds the space not otherwise occupied, about 5½ pints, is filled with hydrogen at a pressure of 150 atmospheres. This is equivalent to more than 100 gallons of hydrogen at atmospheric pressure. The other product of the reaction is alumina, which can easily be washed out. The special preparation of the aluminum consists in the addition of a small percentage of mercury bicloride which starts the reaction in the absence of alkalies so that pure water can be used.

This method possesses two advantages. It allows every automobilist to recharge his air tubes without returning them to the factory. There is also a real advantage in inflating tires with hydrogen instead of air. The diffusion of gases through colloidal substances like India rubber follows a very different law from that which governs the diffusion of gases through ordinary solids. In the latter case the rate of diffusion is inversely proportional to the square root of the density of the gas, but the rate of diffusion through India rubber is directly proportional to the facility with which the gas can enter the pores of the rubber. The rate of diffusion of hydrogen through India rubber is inversely proportional to the square root of the density of the gas, but the rate of diffusion through India rubber is directly proportional to the facility with which the gas can enter the pores of the rubber. The rate of diffusion of hydrogen through India rubber is inversely proportional to the square root of the density of the gas, but the rate of diffusion through India rubber is directly proportional to the facility with which the gas can enter the pores of the rubber.

To Americans who are accustomed to travel on the high seas it will be surprising to learn that the superiority of The Engineer, of London, has been demonstrated. It was appropriated an electrician's services from one of the London subway (tube) stations to the suburb of North Finchley, on which a fare of half a penny will be charged.

## HOW TO OVERHAUL A CAR.

BY HERBERT L. TOWLE.

In order of importance, the facilities needed for overhauling are a warm, light place to work, an extensive electric light, a bench, several boxes for use as workbenches and supports for the dismantled parts, and as liberal an assortment of tools as the owner's means will permit. An iron vise, a bench drill, a foot or power sledge for metal work, and an emery wheel are almost necessary. Failing these, certain parts can be sent to the shop for refitting. A complete list of bench tools is assumed—hammers, files, hack saw, chisels, wrenches, screwdrivers, cotter pin extractor, etc.; also a soldering torch.

The first step after visiting the car by strip it of loose mud, grease, and small gear parts. If the engine and axle are greasy drop them into a pan of kerosene. Have a large box handy for small parts, and three or four small boxes in it for the purpose of grouping related small parts together. It is very easy to get a car apart and shuffle the various bolts, washers, and other small things so thoroughly that it is impossible to tell where they belong on reassembling.

Ascertain by looking under the chassis whether the gasoline tank is attached to the body or to the chassis. If the former, disconnect the gasoline pipe at both ends, plug the ends with bits of rag, disconnect the horn tube and any electric wiring that may run from the body to the chassis, take out the bolts holding the body to the side and rear frame members, and lift the body straight up. The dash is a part of the chassis, not of the body, and does not need to be disturbed at this stage. Have a couple of wood horses ready to receive the body. Do not set it on the floor, as there may be parts projecting beneath it such as the gasoline connection beneath the tank.

The amateur is advised to begin overhauling in the order of ease rather than of magnitude. For this reason the brakes are suggested as a start. Inspected rear brakes on a car with side chains are generally exposed by taking off the rear wheels. First, see if the brake drums have removable cover plates. If not, take off the axle chain, remove the hub caps and nuts, and the steel wheels will come off by turning the axle. If the axle is bent, straighten it or replace it. The steel wheels are adjusted or refitted in the same way.

Remove the radiator, wash it out under a strong stream of water, and if it is suspected of being encrusted with scale fill it up with kerosene and let it stand—until spring time will do no harm. When reassembling it is important to give the radiator an even bearing around all four studs, suggesting it to be held down by that number. If possible, have it rest on 1/4-inch sheets of rubber, and do not draw the holding-down bolts entirely tight. The radiator although frail, is much more rigid than the frame, and any springing of the latter will surely start leaks in the radiator if it has to follow it. The two sketches Fig.

1 and 2, show how a frame may be racked in going over a rough road. If the radiator leaks it is best to let an expert tin-smith repair it (not all tin-smiths are expert). The secret of success is to use a good grade of solder and sweat it thoroughly into the seams taking plenty of time. If the top is not stretched it will be worse while to run a brace or strap to it from the top of the engine or the dashboard. This rod need be only heavy enough to check the vibration.

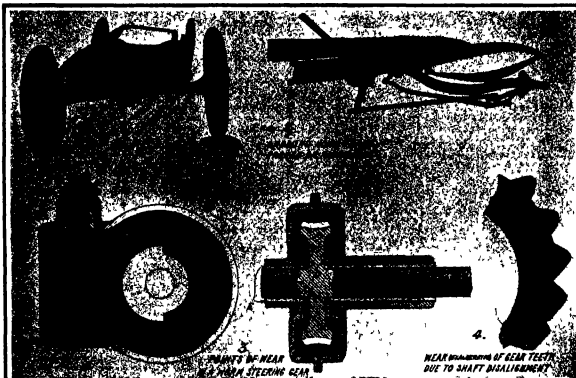
If there is much lost motion in the worm or other reducing gear of the steering mechanism, disconnect the steering links, also the throttle and spark con-

nections, and take the steering column out with the reducing gear at its base. Open the casing and see where the lost motion is. It may be in the threads of the worm *A*, Fig. 3, and the teeth of the segment *B*. Much of it, however, is likely to be in the thrust washers *C* of the steering column and *D* of the segment shaft. Frequently ball bearings are used at *C*. In time either those or plain washers need replacement. Likewise the bushings *E*. If the steering gear case is not provided with a grease cup, this is an excellent time to put one in. Wear on the worm and segment *A* is

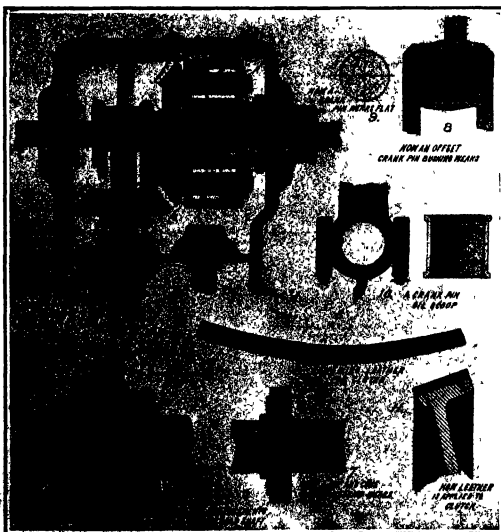
not easy to take up, an approximate cure is to make the bushings *E* occur so that by turning them the centers of the worm and segment are brought closer together. Since, however, most of the wear is in the middle teeth the gear may be loose in the middle position and tight when the wheels are cramped over. There is no remedy for this, save renewal.

The steering knuckle pivots and the pins in the ends of the cross link wear loose in time, and usually it is a shop job to ream the holes and fit new case-hardened pins. See that the front wheels are parallel or "toe in" very slightly when pointing ahead. It is usual to shape the steering knuckles so that the wheels incline toward each other at the ground. They are rarely vertical, and never in line the other way. If the front axle is sprung have a blacksmith straighten it.

Clean out gear case and test all the bushings including the pilot bushing at the front end of the squared shaft, by shaking them. If ball or roller bearings are used, replace them if loose, if plain bushings they must be refitted or replaced. New bushings bought from stock generally need considerable fitting. The re-



SOME PARTS OF A CAR WHICH MUST BE CAREFULLY CONSIDERED IN OVERHAULING



SOME PARTS WORN IN AN AUTOMOBILE.

(Continued on page 62.)

# AUTOMOBILE FIRE ENGINES.

## A NEW TYPE OF MOTOR VEHICLE.

BY HERBERT T. WADE.

The great success of automobile fire apparatus in Europe and in many of the smaller cities of the United States frequently gives rise to the inquiry, why are such machines not used more extensively in the larger fire departments where the highest efficiency of apparatus and personnel is demanded and maintained? The acknowledged utility of automobiles for pleasure and business even under extraordinary conditions emphasizes this tardiness the more forcibly, particularly as the modern motor vehicle is now capable not only of attaining high speed but of carrying heavy loads. Promptness in reaching a fire with suitable apparatus is of prime importance, and the automobile in this respect and in endurance is easily superior to a horse. Today with high speed pumping capacity can be secured in a motor vehicle sufficient for most conditions of service, and this, with economy of maintenance after the initial cost, has led to the adoption of automobile fire apparatus by many of the progressive smaller cities. This economy is obviously due to the fact that only when in operation are gasoline and oil required. A horse even when idle entails expense for shoeing and feeding.

Even the most conservative of metropolises fire officials realize that the rapid transportation by horses and the subsequent operation at high pressure of a heavy steam pumping engine on wheels is more or less a mechanical anachronism in these days, when central power stations have largely taken the place of the small isolated plant, and when small internal combustion motors using gasoline have been found economical, convenient, and efficient. The pumping power of a fire engine depends upon the weight that can be transported. As an internal-combustion motor connected with a pump would weigh much less than a steam engine and boiler and going to a fire would use the same engine for propulsion, it would follow that greater efficiency could be secured. Even superior from the mechanical standpoint, but not as yet practically applied, would be the mounting of an electric pump on a gasoline-driven motor car, using current derived from supply mains near the scene of operation. Chief Hines of the New York Fire Department has developed such an idea which possesses many obvious merits. He proposes to use electrically-driven centrifugal pumps on motor vehicles capable of high speed and to obtain power from electric-light standards or other outlets which are at almost every street corner and quite as well distributed as hydrants. The same condition also prevails in many rural districts, where electric light and trolley lines are to be found on every main street. Butte-plugs and conductors could be used for connections, and with the power derived from a central station the portable machinery would be reduced to a minimum weight. A similar idea, though not so elaborately developed, was put into operation more than twenty years ago by Dr. B. B. Wheeler, now president of the

Crocker-Wheeler Company, Amper, N. J. This apparatus consisted of a bipolar motor directly coupled to a pump, and was mounted on a light carriage. The gasoline motor car was not so highly developed at this time, for which reason the carriage was drawn by horses. A fire engine built on this plan was tried out on the Erie Canal at Schenectady. It was finally brought to Amper, and was destroyed in a fire which occurred there in 1885. Strange to say, this scheme, which would involve comparatively little outlay for a large city, has never been thoroughly and practically tested.

At present, motor apparatus is most widely used in suburbs and small cities with wooden dwellings, in other words, in communities where its high speed renders it possible to cover a much greater territory by a single company, and where infrequent alarms reduce the expense of maintenance far below that entailed for feeding and shoeing horses. For example, a St. Louis motor company recently made a run of nine miles to a country villa outside the city limits and re-



MOTOR-DRIVEN CHEMICAL ENGINE.

rived in time to save the house. This same company in a period of eighteen months responded to 1,000 fires without a single failure, and in so doing traveled 2,250 miles in all conditions of weather, including mud, sleet and snow. The economy of this company is apparent from the fact that its maintenance account for twelve months was \$481.31, including two accidents, which resulted in an expense of \$250, as compared with an annual cost of \$816, for feeding and shoeing two horses. Even in a district where there are no water supply hydrants, such a machine can make a speedy run, and draw water from a well, canal, or pond.

In a large city the question of territory is not so important as that of speed in getting the firemen to the fire. In a district with high pressure fire protection fire occur which taken in time may require the powerful streams from the fire hydrants and could be put out with a minimum of water damage. Indeed it seems likely that the future fire protection of a

large city will consist simply of an efficient high pressure water system and automobile engines and hose wagons.

In a description of modern automobile fire apparatus we may mention, first, the high-speed touring car or runabout, for the use of chiefs and supervising officials, capable of rapid travel and of covering wide sections of territory. This was the first automobile used by fire departments. Such a car does not usually carry extinguishers or any fire apparatus, one or two of which extinguishers and axes or other tools being carried only in rare instances. All that is demanded of such a machine is a high quality and reliable motor of sufficient speed and easy control. In many cases these thirty minute Chief Crocker of the New York Fire Department is at the scene of any fire. New York, directing in person the operations of the firemen. This is significant in view of the large amount of territory comprising the greater city and the dangers involved in some of the outlying districts.

A modification of the chief's car may be seen at that supplied to the battalion chief or the head of the fire department of the smaller city. Extinguishers and tools are often considered essential. The chief carries with him not only a chauffeur but one or two firemen from the permanent headquarters force.

If rapid travel is desirable for the chief, it is of course equally advantageous for the firemen responding to an alarm. In small towns where the cause of a fire is a certain blowing against an open gas light or by a short-circuit of a lighting system, one or two men with axes and hooks promptly on the scene can prevent what might be a serious fire in a dwelling house or stable. Accordingly it was early realized that auxiliary or emergency squads could be equipped with motor cars and could be dispatched at high speed to the scene of the fire. These men deal with an incipient fire or prepare for the steam engine which follow and if necessary send in additional alarms or communicate by telephone with headquarters. This type of equipment is extensively used throughout the United States.

But it must be realized that this means simply the prompt bringing to the scene of action the trained men who can take care of the smallest kind of a fire. Without apparatus or sufficient power nothing can be done where the blaze is at all serious. It was with this end in view that automobile fire-fighting facilities were increased by adding a chemical tank and a few hundred feet of small hose. The chemical tank and equipment has now become an indispensable feature of many fire departments. Carried on horse-drawn hose wagon, a small fire can be quenched in its infancy by its means with a minimum use of water and consequent damage. The chemical tank consists of a copper cistern of from 40 to 70 gallons capacity containing bicarbonate of soda and other chemicals with which sulphuric acid and water may come in

subject to generate carbonic-acid gas at such pressure as to be forced with the water through a small hose. This apparatus has been used with considerable success in some fire departments, but it is fair to say has been ignored or found unavailable in others. Especially is this true of New York city, where the practice has always been to concentrate at a fire adequate pumping power at the earliest possible moment and to use large quantities of water, the idea being to take no chances and even at the risk of water damage to err on the side of safety.

In the horse-drawn combination wagon the chemical tank and the small hose usually carried upon the driver's seat is but an incidental feature, the body of

the wagon being reserved for larger fire-engine hose. But in a properly designed automobile such apparatus can be sped to the scene of a fire with four to eight men at from 40 to 60 miles an hour. Thus for a fire in a small suburban dwelling, in the majority of cases, a chemical engine brought close to the house with its 200 feet of  $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch hose, is able to extinguish an incipient fire. Such motor cars are built with engines from 24 to 50 horse-power. Because of the peculiar service conditions they are usually of the air-cooled type to obviate danger of freezing in winter. The tanks vary in capacity. It is considered good practice to install two tanks, so that one can be refilled while the other is in use. It would seem desirable

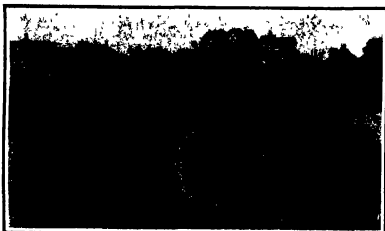
that such chemical engines be supplied in the majority of fire departments to answer at once on the first alarm.

The next step in the progress of the small motor chemical engine was to make it larger and to add to its equipment. Accordingly combination engines were designed which not only carried the chemical equipment but also hose for the following steam engine, scaling ladders, tools and other apparatus, thus enabling the men to prepare the way for more serious operations and saving valuable time. In this field a number of very efficient types have been evolved.

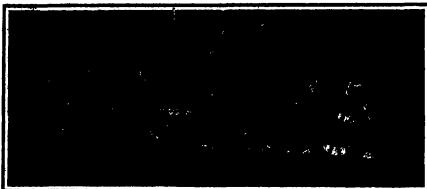
Next in mechanical development comes the motor  
(Continued on page 61)



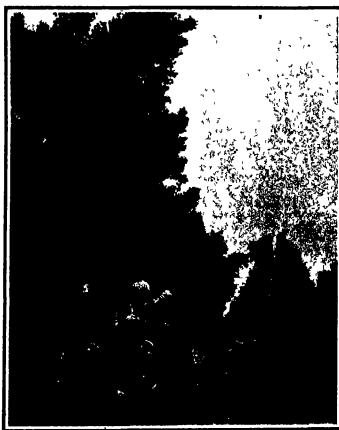
A NEW YORK AUTOMOBILE HIGH-PRESSURE SERVICE WAGON.



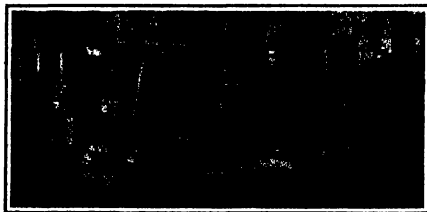
AN AUTOMOBILE HOSE CART



FIRE CHIEF'S AUTOMOBILE



MOTOR-FIRE PUMP AT WORK



A COMBINATION TRUCK FOR SMALL COMMUNITIES.



A COMBINED AUTOMOBILE FIRE DEPARTMENT.



# AUTOMOBILE NOVELTIES.

SOME INTERESTING DEVICES FOR THE SEASON OF 1910.

## A HEAVY TRUCK WITH FOUR WHEEL DRIVE

BY DR. ALFRED H. BARNES

The adoption of tractors in rural districts is a difficult thing, though very important problem of the automobile industry. Bad roads and sandy soil create a number

of difficulties which can be overcome only by special construction. One of the most important points seems to be the utilization of all four wheels for driving thus increasing the adhesion. This is especially imperative in the case of heavy motor cars employed as tractors for load trains consisting of two or three vehicles where a weight of several tons acting on the fore axle can be utilized for adhesion.



TRACTOR TRUCK (40-HORSE POWER 6-CYLINDER) HAULING A TRAILER



THE 40-HORSE-POWER MOTOR OF THE FOUR-WHEEL DRIVE TRUCK

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The Daimler Motor Works of Germany have constructed for a well known Berlin export firm a heavy truck with four wheel drive which is being shipped to South Africa in order there to take up its heavy duties in propelling as tractor a train of 10 to 15 tons. This car shows a number of technical features of interest.

The chassis is made of compressed sheet steel girders with compressed transverse beams and lateral axles. The six cylinder explosion motor located in a three point suspension yields 60 horse power at the brake with 210 H. P. M. This motor is of the familiar Daimler type with magneto-electric ignition.

The maximum speed of the car is 10 miles per hour. The low minimum speed  $\frac{1}{4}$  mile an hour is remarkable thus fully utilizing the advantage of four wheel drive for the overcoming of gradients and traveling over sandy soil without increasing the dimensions of the gear case. As only the fore wheels are steerable the rear wheels are driven through a toothed wheel drive.

The cast steel wheels have broad rim flanges which are intended to prevent the vehicle from penetrating too deeply into the sand. The solid rubber tire are pressed immediately on the wheels. The fore wheels are steered essentially in the same manner as other cars through worm gearing. The vehicle is equipped with four brakes operated independently of one another viz a gear brake two differential brakes and one rear wheel brake. The motor car which is designed for a useful load of 15 tons is able to haul two trailers of the same capacity while negotiating gradients of about 15 per cent with this total load of 130 hundredweight at a speed of  $\frac{1}{4}$  miles an hour.

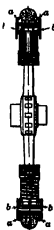
is about 13 540 pounds of which about one-half falls on the fore axle so that about 6 270 pounds on the fore axle is utilized for adhesion.

## THE PANDER SPRING MOTOR WHEEL

BY DR. ALFRED H. BARNES  
THE MANY well known defects of the pneumatic automobile tire have prompted many inventors to attempt to evolve an efficient and reliable substitute therefor without any sacrifice of resiliency. The general trend of inventive effort has been to secure this quality by some elaborate arrangement of springs without however completely solving the problem.

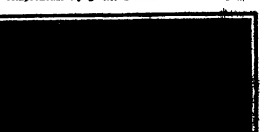
Early in 1907 however the Hon R. C. Pander M. A. M. Inst. P. directed his attention to this subject. The object of his quest was to devise a wheel which should be as resilient as the pneumatic Al though the first cost of such a wheel might be somewhat higher than the pneumatic such a difference would be more than the lower maintenance and longer life of evolved the spring.

The Pander prize two essential parts—a double slotted (1) an on into which a pressed and an in formed by riveting oxidizable metal on outer channel and disposed coiled spring wheel the chain nished with corrugated polished surface over the internal channel for the transmitting the engine and the re the brake from the outer rim. In a



Longitudinal section through Pander spring wheel

the corrugated segments are disposed with, and are replaced by a smooth strip of hard bronze. This should have no connection with the spring wheel proper. The general design of this inner section may be comprehensively gathered from a reference to the illustration showing the wheel center complete. It comprises an ordinary wood-spoked wheel of small diameter having a groove around its circumference on each side of which is shrunk a steel band or tire in such a manner that a grooved space is left to receive the heads of the T bolts by which the spiral springs are secured to the rim of the wheel center. These spiral springs are of the ordinary cylindrical type so called as to fit into aluminum castings at either end and with such spaces between the ends that when compressed the steel is not overstrained. For protection against rust the springs are sheathed and moreover each end is thoroughly threaded for a length of about half a coil.

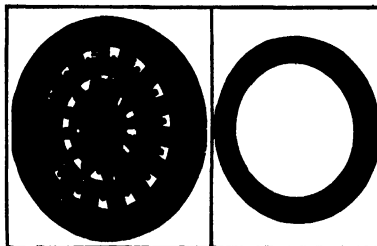


THE 40-HORSE-POWER MOTOR OF THE FOUR-WHEEL DRIVE TRUCK

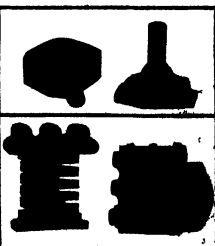
The aluminum castings by which the springs are attached to the wheel center are of special design. On one face they have a spiral tunnel or flange, so that the spring may easily screw into them, and are also provided with suitable lugs in order that they may be gripped by the T bolts. A steel tube is also cast into the aluminum base which projects up the axle of the spring as shown in the illustration. The aluminum castings forming the core for attachment to the outer ends of the springs are also provided with spiral tunnels on one face into which the spring screws while the other face has dovetailed grooves into which rubber strips of a section similar to those used for carriage tires are forced. A hole is drilled into the center of these caps having a diameter considerably greater than that of the steel tube attached to the base so that a space is left between the tube and the casting. The advantage of this arrangement is that in the event of the application of an excessive side force such as sudden and violent throwing in of the clutch or braking or the wheels being caught in a rut the tube comes into contact with the side of the hole thereby preventing the spring from being overstrained in any direction at right angles to its axis. In the case of high powered automobiles, the rubber strips are replaced by a solid rubber pad vulcanized to a steel plate which is attached to the aluminum cap.

The springs are inserted into the spiral tunnels at

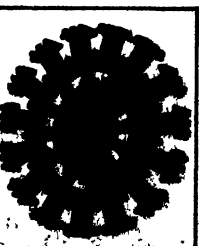
the illustration showing the wheel center complete. It comprises an ordinary wood-spoked wheel of small diameter having a groove around its circumference on each side of which is shrunk a steel band or tire in such a manner that a grooved space is left to receive the heads of the T bolts by which the spiral springs are secured to the rim of the wheel center. These spiral springs are of the ordinary cylindrical type so called as to fit into aluminum castings at either end and with such spaces between the ends that when compressed the steel is not overstrained. For protection against rust the springs are sheathed and moreover each end is thoroughly threaded for a length of about half a coil.



THE COMPLETE WHEEL ASSEMBLED WITH ALL ITS SPRINGS



THE OUTER RIM AND TREAD OF THE SPRING WHEEL



RUBBER SEGMENTS TO WHICH SPRINGS ARE ATTACHED, WITH AND WITHOUT CAP

THE SPRING WHEEL, WITH OUTER RIM REMOVED

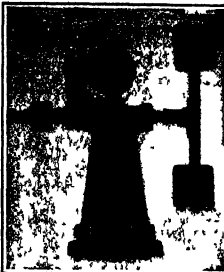
their respective ends, and after correct adjustment are heated to a certain temperature, laid out to insure their temper, and melted solder is then run in which unites with the flanging on the spring and securely combines the base and spring together in such a manner as to preclude any possibility of their becoming loosened.

The lower springs, 1's, those just above the point of the wheel's tread, are compressed under the weight of the vehicle while those at the top do not touch the circumference. The spring portion is therefore practically floating, for at no part is there any rigid connection between the inner and outer parts of the wheel. When the wheel is in motion the springs and caps in its lower portion take the whole of the weight of the vehicle and are brought tightly into contact with the rim but do not shift their position relatively thereto. As the wheel moves forward the springs become disengaged and move round like the spokes of a rigid wheel their places immediately being taken by others. The disengaged springs travel forward relatively to the rim in the direction in which the vehicle is moving. The result is that the central portion of the wheel makes a slightly greater number of revolutions than the outer rim in a given distance. At the same time, however, it is impossible for the inner part to travel round independently of the outer rim or tread of the wheel since it is at all times tightly in contact therewith at the point of the wheel's contact with the ground which is the point of application of the vehicle's weight. The rubbing of the outer extremities of the springs establishing such adhesion upon the surface of the interior of the rim as to prevent any possibility of slipping. Yet there is no perceptible wear or tear upon the two contact surfaces. In the case of the driving wheel the gripping power of the spring members is very considerably augmented by having the corrugated surface as already described.

The successive compression of the springs as the wheel revolves is quite continuous and is effected with the utmost smoothness as the spiral springs with their caps can be deflected in every direction without jerks or concussions cannot occur which even with pneumatic tires are unpleasant features when traveling at high speed over bad road surfaces.

It may be thought that the absence of rigid connection between the inner and outer parts of the wheel may be disadvantageous but experience has quite conclusively demonstrated that no such drawback exists. It is practically impossible for any slipping between the two parts to occur even when the vehicle is badly driven. There is no friction between the rubbers in the free ends of the springs and the internal surface of the channel rim. The springs as it were walk round the inner circumference of the outer rim on a polished metallic surface and are consequently loaded with their due proportion of the car weight during each revolution. The moment the weight is applied to any spring the latter cannot be pulled more relatively to the rim until the weight is released. Consequently there is an entire absence of friction and the rubber shoes on the spring caps will last as long as the wheel tire. Even in the rare event of the rubbers of the spring end becoming damaged it is an insignificant item in renewal but no such occurrence has yet been experienced though wheels have been driven for thousands of miles. Even the entrance of dust or mud has no deteriorating effect upon the two surfaces.

The wheel has been severely tested upon a 28.56 horse power Daimler motor in comparison with the heaviest make of English pneumatic tire. True the "Pneuflex" wheel is somewhat heavier than the pneumatic but it has been proved that such is no disadvantage, the mileage possible per gallon of fuel under the extreme conditions being approximately the same. Trials have shown that the average life of the outer solid rubber tire is from 10,000 to 15,000 miles which is about two and a half times that of the ordinary pneumatic tire. Though in first cost the "Pneuflex" wheel is more expensive than the pneumatic this difference in initial outlay is soon recouped from the



A FAN DYNAMOMETER FOR TESTING MOTORS

reduced running expenses. It has been found that the cost per mile with the pneumatic averages about 1.98 cents as compared with 0.48 cent for the spring wheel—a difference in the latter's favor of 1.50 cents. Moreover, as the wheel itself is practically everlasting the renewal charges are limited to the solid rubber tire which costs much less than a pneumatic of the same dimensions and the rubber caps of the spring members. Occasionally as the result of a very severe concussion or jolt a spring might break. This can be easily and quickly replaced on the road, but as the deflection of the spring is limited in every direction by the central tube the stress to which the steel is subjected need be no greater than that in the side springs supporting the automobile. Such an eventuality is therefore remote. Again with this wheel in



LAMBERT AUTOMOBILE RAILWAY CAR BUILT FOR HARRIMAN BEACH ROADS

view of the ingenuity of its construction the ever existing danger of side slipping is reduced to a negligible quantity owing to the flexibility of the wheel.

#### AN AUTOMOBILE CAR FOR RAILWAYS

The accompanying illustration shows a special car ordered by H. H. Harriman before his death, which is to be used on a private road running from a point on the Erie Railroad to the Harriman private residence. The car is a Lambert friction drive and was ordered for the purpose of ascertaining whether a gasoline car for from 10 to 15 passengers could be utilized more economically than steam cars on branch roads on the Harriman lines. Whether a car of this character will come into general use will depend upon the result of experiments to be made.

#### AN AUTOMOBILE SUFFEE TENDER

A novel automobile tender has been devised by Mr. O. Reeves. Mounted in the body across the motor is a three-burner gasoline stove connected with a one-gallon gasoline tank. Next forward is a receptacle in which is fitted a complete cooking outfit, each article neatly and telescoping into the other. The outfit consists of two frying pans, four boiling vessels of the pot twenty serving plates, three sauce pans and eight soup tins. To the left of the cooking outfit is a three-hole vegetable collar with tray lid for large cooking spoons, cake turners, carving forks, etc. To the right is a galvanized iron lined refrigerator containing six one-pint glass omelette ice receptacles and large meat tray.

Immediately forward of the refrigerator and extending to the end of the bed is a seven-gallon water cooler. To the left of the water cooler is a thirteen drawer cabinet intended for all grocers and cooking staples, knives, forks, spoons, tea towels, table covers, etc. In the little open court there is just room for two following dish pans to disappear.

The accompanying picture showing the kitchen open indicates that the two covering lids when opened out form two spacious serving tables. These lids are cov-

ered on the inside with padded cloth, and on the outside with talcosept ducking. The meeting edges of one cover is provided with a patent leather flap and is held in place in transit by two large straps which buckle securely and make the tender rain and dust proof. A small brass lamp and lock is also furnished. A neat little folding dining table is strapped to the inside of one of these lids.

An extra broiler or cooker for emergency or pocket use and a camp lantern strapped to an outside bracket complete the outfit.

The refrigerator and water cooler are fitted with drain coils. A right pair of folding legs is provided to support the end of the body when disconnected from the auto.

The wheels have rubber tires and the several parts are so accurately reared that the tender moves even at twenty to twenty-five miles speed without noise and takes corners perfectly.

The tender weighs 475 pounds and the extra draft on the automobile is scarcely perceptible. It has been used in serving a great many roadside diners and its entire practicability for such service established beyond doubt.

#### A FAN DYNAMOMETER

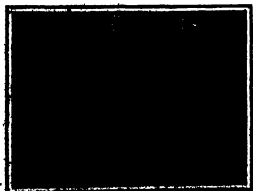
The standard type of fan dynamometer shown in the accompanying photograph has been devised by Joseph Tracy. It consists essentially of a metal standard carrying a horizontal steel shaft in large ball bearings. One end of this shaft is connected with the motor under test by a universally jointed extension shaft; the other end carries an overhung two-bladed fan, as shown. On the dynamometer shaft a small pulley fitted to a groove on the rear of the universal joint is belted to a larger pulley on the special tachometer which is mounted on top of the housing that carries the dynamometer shaft.

The tachometer of the standard fan dynamometer is provided with a double scale and single pointer. The inner scale showing the revolutions per minute and the outer scale the horse-power developed. The revolutions per minute scale is graduated progressively by divisions of 20 revolutions from 200 to 2,000 r.p.m. The horse-power scale gives a minimum reading of 1 horse-power at 400 revolutions and a maximum reading of 70 horse-power at 1,800 revolutions. Consequently at all ordinary rates of motor speed a simultaneous reading of revolutions per minute can be obtained without any computation.

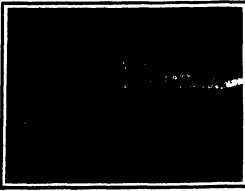
The standard fan dynamometer can be employed in testing motors on the block by making suitable connection between the jointed dynamometer shaft and the motor shaft, clutch or flywheel. It can also be used to test an automobile motor in position on the chassis by disconnecting the propeller shaft and substituting for it the jointed shaft of the dynamometer.

The standard dynamometer is designed to test motors of nonduplicated cars. However, by the use of fan blades of greater or less area and suitable tachometer scales the range of absorption and measurement of power can be varied between wide limits.

The Tenth National Automobile Show in Madison Square Garden afforded a good opportunity of inspecting the product of representative American makers. The exhibition brought out some novelties in construction and design which showed a gratifying tendency toward standardization. That the modern every day motor car is generally known as a stock car has left the motor car of experiment and is now a practical and useful machine was strongly emphasized by the many performances in hill-climbing, touring and racing contests of 1919. There is a comprehensive display at the Garden of duplicate models of the stock cars that competed successfully in the various sport events of the year. Some of the original cars are shown. Thanks to the adoption of certain standards a new model need no longer be put through years of testing before it is entered in competition with other cars. Recently victories have been won by certain makes of cars that had scarcely competed in previous years.

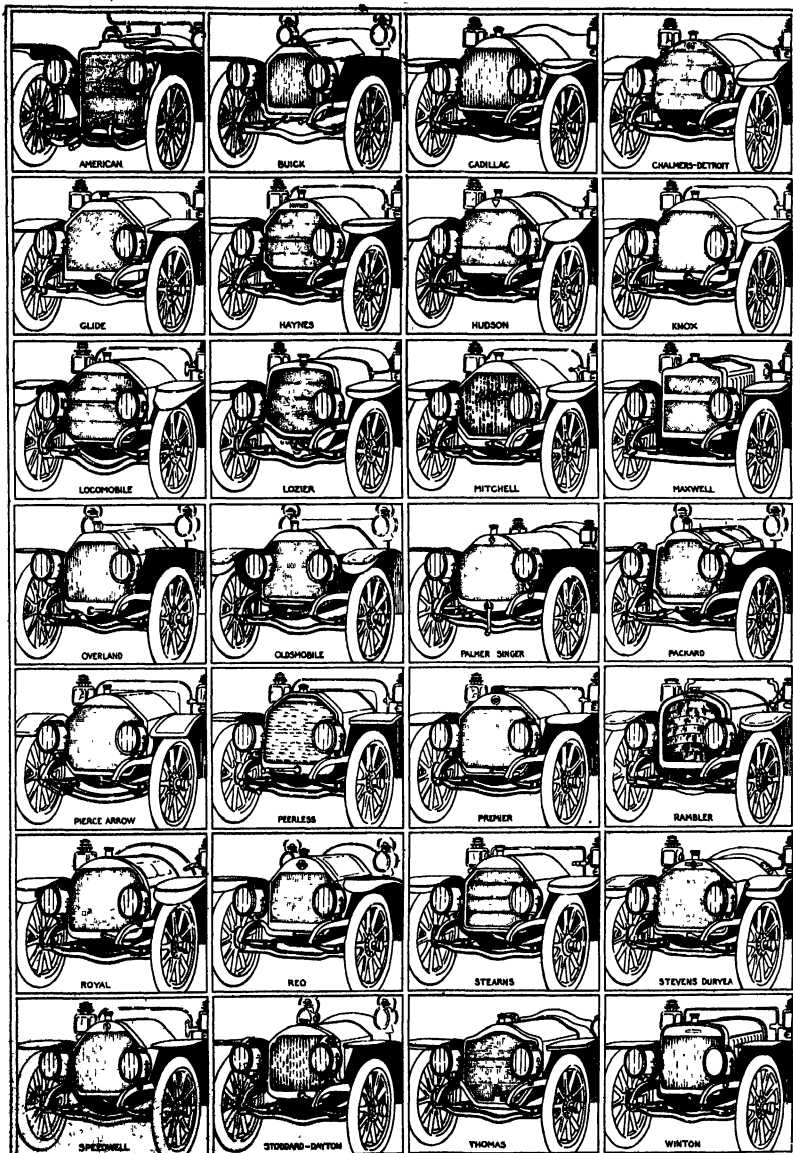


THE SUFEE TENDER IN USE



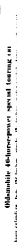
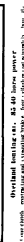
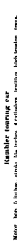
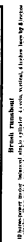
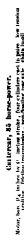
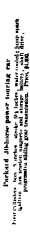
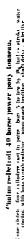
THE SUFEE TENDER IN USE





Often you have wondered what make of car was that which sped past your eyes or around a curve. Although most automobiles are more or less alike in general appearance, they differ in certain features. The radiator and engine bonnet are among these. With the help of this chart, the cars here presented can be identified by their radiators and engine bonnets.

AN AUTOMOBILE IDENTIFICATION CHART.



Intervention	Price (\$/m <sup>3</sup> )
1. No intervention	0.00
2. 10% reduction in demand	0.05
3. 20% reduction in demand	0.10
4. 30% reduction in demand	0.15
5. 40% reduction in demand	0.20
6. 50% reduction in demand	0.25
7. 60% reduction in demand	0.30
8. 70% reduction in demand	0.35
9. 80% reduction in demand	0.40
10. 90% reduction in demand	0.45
11. 100% reduction in demand	0.50

**WAGNER, FREDERICK**

**CARS OF 1911** **BIG AND LITTLE**

1



# MAKING YOUR OWN REPAIRS.

BY ROGER B. WHITMAN.



To one who is familiar with the methods employed in the average automobile repair shop it is not surprising that a large percentage of the cost of their bills (the principal charge is usually for labor at so much an hour but there is no way in which the owner can assure himself that part of the time charged for was not wasted). The difficulty of checking a labor charge is an indictment to a mild form of swindling and it must be admitted that there are shops in which an hour's work by an untrained boy is charged for at the rate for skilled labor. This again time may be wasted unintentionally. It is not unusual to find that after assembling an engine or a part of the work must be undone in order to fit an overlooked part or to correct an adjustment that should have been attended to in the first place and in such an event the total time occupied is usually charged to the owner of the car.

When the prospective purchaser of an automobile is of a properly inquiring turn of mind he will ask his friends to let him see their bills for repairs and maintenance and will probably gain the impression that automobilism is an expensive diversion. If he has any mechanical ability however he will realize that three-quarters of the work charged for could have been done with simple tools and an ordinary knowledge of their use.

Aside from the economy of it the owner who does his own work becomes so familiar with the mechanism that it is instinctive with him to recognize the signs of coming trouble. He corrects faults at their inception and by so doing he obviates an otherwise inevitable delay and expense.

The following notes are offered as suggestions to the owner who desires to render himself independent of the repair shop.

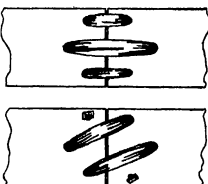
## VALVE GRINDING

At more or less frequent intervals the valves of a gasoline engine and particularly the exhaust valves will become rounded and pitted. When they are in this condition they cannot be expected to retain the compressed gases and in consequence the engine can not deliver its full power. It then becomes necessary to grind in the valves which is accomplished by introducing an abrasive between the valve and its seat and rotating the valve under light pressure until the surfaces are worn smooth. This is usually considered to be a job for a repair man but as it is patience rather than skill that is required the car owner need not hesitate to undertake it.

Before grinding can begin the valve must be relieved from the pressure of its spring. In many engines the valve seat and spring are contained in a cage that is easily removed and the detaching of the spring from the stem is an easy matter. When the valve seat is integral with the cylinder the spring may be compressed by means of a special tool or by a flat metal bar used as a lever. To prevent the valve from moving a small block of wood may be placed between the valve disk and the valve cap. When the spring is compressed the device through which it acts on the valve stem may be removed. The valve may then be taken out through the valve cap opening.

When a valve is in bad condition the surface of the disk and seat are rough and pitted. It is not necessary to continue the grinding process until the entire width of the surfaces is smooth for a narrower strip of belt is sufficient to retain the gases. If it is continuous and uninterrupted. Finely powdered emery mixed with kerosene oil is a satisfactory abrasive but whatever is used great care must be taken to keep it out of the cylinder and away from the bearing surfaces. The passage between the valve neck and cylinder should be tightly plugged with cotton waste a string tied to it fitting it in removal when the work is completed. If a badly worn valve is not being ground in but with coarse emery which is later replaced by a finer

grade to give the requisite smoothness. To apply the abrasive dip the finger tip in machine oil and then to dry emery the small quantity that adheres being applied to the valve surface. The valve is then replaced on its seat and rotated by means of a screw driver. A bit brace or hand drill may be used but excellent results may be obtained by means of a 5 inch or 13 inch screwdriver with a round grooved handle which is held between the extended palms. A con-



LIFTING A VALVE

tinuous rotary motion in one direction will tend to wear the valve oval and it is necessary to turn it first in one direction and then equally in the other. A slight back and forth motion of the hands will give this result and as only a light pressure is necessary it should not prove tiresome.

In order to preserve the true circular form of the valve seat the valve should be lifted after twenty or thirty turns and replaced on its seat in a new position. To facilitate this a few turns of a helical spring may be placed in the valve jacket under the disk its size and strength being such that the valve will be slightly lifted from its seat when pressure is taken off the screwdriver. The location of the spring is shown in the diagram.

When the valve surfaces appear smooth all traces of the emery should be washed away with gasoline (oil being taken that it does not seep in the cylinder valve stem and push rod guides or other bearing parts). To test the fit make pencil marks on the valve seat and give the valve a turn or two with the screwdriver. If the fit is correct the marks will be erased.

The replacing of the valve spring is greatly simplified if it is compressed in a vise and bound in the compressed state by light iron or copper wires passed through it lengthways. The spring may then be

to notice the exact position of a piece before he takes it off and in general is unobservant of the foreman that would go far to simplify the reassembling. If time is not an object he will eventually get all the parts properly rebuilt but if he aspires to be a good workman he must learn to be methodical in everything that he does.

The first step in dismounting any part of an automobile is to ascertain what holds it in position. What other parts may have to be displaced in order to get at it and what parts may be released by its removal. To take off an inlet manifold for instance it may first be necessary to remove the carburetor which in turn will require the disconnection of the gasoline pipe and throttle control.

The plan of action having been determined work may begin. It will greatly facilitate reassembling if nuts bolts screws and other small parts are placed in boxes the parts belonging to the inlet pipe in one, inspection plate bolts in another and so on. If these parts are laid indiscriminately on the engine and frame they are only too likely to fall into hand holes and other openings and aside from the difficulty of recovering them they must then be sorted.

Where several parts are alike in shape and size—like caps for instance—care should not be taken for granted that they are interchangeable. Much may have been fitted to its particular location and on the chance of this they should be marked before being removed so that there may be no error in returning them. Some manufacturers are careful to mark all parts by letter or figure or with a prick punch and when this is the case the marks should be followed absolutely in the case of gears it is necessary to mark three points marks at the point of meshing. To reassemble them correctly it is then necessary only to place the marked tooth of one gear between the two marked teeth of the other.

When taking off a cylinder the connecting rod should be blocked or supported. Otherwise the weight of the piston will bring it sharply against the crank pin which may suffer. The connecting rods of cylinders are to remain off for any length of time they should be placed with cotton waste at all openings and several thicknesses of paper should be tied around the pistons.

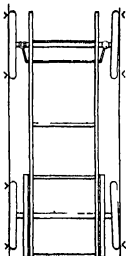
In reassembling, all nuts bolts and screws should be cleaned and oiled before being replaced. Every bolt has its wrench of appropriate size with which it is hardly possible to exert a breakage strain. When an 18 inch wrench is used on a 1/2 inch bolt there is every possibility of the bolt head being twisted off before the operator realizes that it is in danger.

If the parts of a properly made machine do not come off with reasonable freedom when the bolts and nuts are removed force should be avoided until it is proven to be necessary. Taper pins keys and unthreaded set screws are frequently responsible and as they must be accurately replaced their location and direction should be noted and remembered. It is poor policy to rush a piece of work and after a few experiences with compression water and gasoline leaks that could be avoided by giving more time to the job in hand the motorist will learn in his shop the motto "Go slow, go sure," and abide by it.

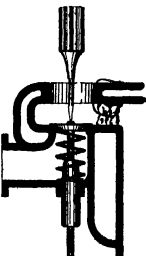
## LUBRICATING THE ENGINE

It is the privilege among automobile manufacturers to fit gears upon the shafts and ease of the shafts, and the ease of a gear is intended to take the force granted to it for the bearings to turn down these cups. Consequently it should be noted however that the spring leaves require lubrication at least once a season. There is a continual sliding motion of the bearing upon the spring in its action. If the surfaces are not lubricated they will be subject to undue wear and eventual breakage. The proper lubricant is a petroleum oil of the right

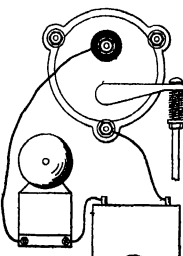
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LIFTING THE VALVE

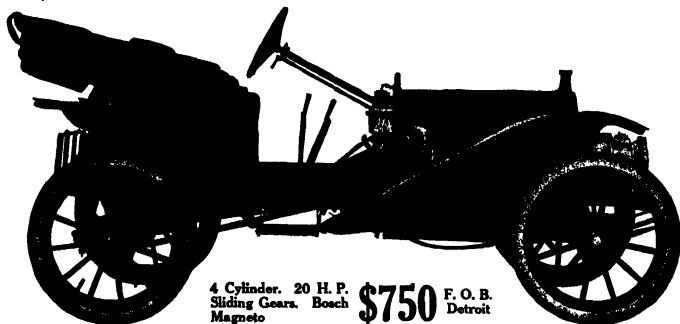


GRINDING A VALVE



TESTING AN INLET

## COMPARES WITH THE COSTLIEST CARS AS A PERFECT SMALL DIAMOND WITH A LARGE ONE



4 Cylinder. 20 H. P.  
Sliding Gears. Bosch  
Magneto \$750 F. O. B.  
Detroit

# Hupp

A small diamond is relatively just as good and just as valuable as a large one.

In the same sense the Hupmobile is precisely as fine as the largest, the best and the most expensive cars made.

We make the comparison because we want you to learn to associate the Hupmobile in your mind with the finest cars you know.

The Hupmobile claims the right (and that right is conceded by discriminating owners) to travel side by side with the best products of motordom.

It confesses no delinquencies, admits no inferiorities; concedes no advantage save size and carrying capacity, to cars costing twice and thrice its price.

Observe the personnel of its ownership in your own city.

Note that the majority of men who drive a Hupmobile are the men who know good cars—whose private garages, perhaps, houses several fine cars of other types.

The Hupmobile was built to fill a particular need—to supply a special want—to furnish a type of car that was lacking.

Its creators could see no reason why a car carrying two passengers should not be just as good—just as sound and just as trustworthy—at the best big car built.

Every part that contributes to power and speed and staunchness in the Hupmobile is precisely as good and fine as the same part in the best big car.

The two are mates in quality.

The Hupmobile will go anywhere that the big car will go; climb any hill the big car will climb; and do anything the big car will do except that it will not carry the same number of passengers.

When you buy the ordinary car of moderate price, you say to yourself:—

"I am getting just the sort of a car indicated by the price—a moderately good car."

When you buy a Hupmobile, on the contrary, you buy a quality

and a degree of excellence with which the price has nothing to do.

If the Hupmobile were any bigger, it could not be made as good

without increasing the price.

These things (which are literally true) will explain to you what perhaps you had not understood before—why you have encountered in the year past so many enthusiastic partisans of the Hupmobile.

Everybody, if you will stop to think backward a little bit, has seemed to say kind things about the Hupmobile.

They have said these things about the Hupmobile because it is the newly good kind of a moderate sized car which we have just described.

A year ago there were less than 100 Hupmobiles in commission.

Today 5,000 are being built, as rapidly as excellence of workmanship with the finest materials will permit of hurry—to satisfy a demand which sprang up in incredible volume before the first hundred cars were completed.

Of course, you want to know all about a car which has been favored with the warmest approval ever extended by the American motor-buying public to any motor car.

Even if you own a car to which you are strongly attached, you would like to have placed before you all the information which will shed light upon a condition so unprecedented as the Hupmobile has created.

And if you are wavering in your choice of a car, your desire to know is even stronger.

Sign and send the coupon. It will bring you not only the Hupmobile literature, picturing and describing the 1919 Hupmobile in every detail.

It will bring in addition, the name and address of the Hupmobile dealer in your home or the one nearest you.

We will put you in direct touch with the car, so that you can see it and satisfy yourself as to the literal truth of every statement we have made.

Clip the coupon and send it now

### SPECIFICATIONS

**ENGINE**—4 cylinder, 20 H. P., 3½ inch bore, 3¼ inch stroke; L-head type; water cooled; offset crank shaft; fan bladed fly wheel in front; Parsons white bronze bearings; noiseless cam shaft.

**TRANSMISSION**—Selective sliding gears in extension bolted to crank case; shifting without noise.

**CLUTCH**—Multiple disc type; self-adjusting; enclosed in gear case; running in oil.

**REAR AXLE**—Shaft drive; Hyatt roller and New Departure bearings; shaft and universal joint enclosed and lubricated by oil from crank case through transmission.

**BRAKES**—Two foot and two emergency (internal expanding) lined with Thermoid on rear hubs.

**IGNITION**—Bosch high tension magneto, doing away with spark coil, batteries and connecting wires.

**TIRES**—30 x 3 inches.

**WHEEL BASE**—86 inches.

**TREAD**—86 inches.

**SPRINGS**—Semi-elliptical front, patented cross spring rear.

**EQUIPMENT**—Two side and tail oil lamps, dragon horn, tools, repair kit, pump.

**WEIGHT**—1100 pounds regular equipment.

As an object lesson, three Hupmobiles were driven through the biting winter weather and deep snow, from Detroit to New York for the Grand Central Palace Show.

## HUPP MOTOR CAR COMPANY

DEPT. Q

DETROIT, MICH.

Name

Address

Hupp  
Motor  
Car Co.

Dept. Q  
DETROIT, MICH.

Send 1919 Hupmobile literature and names and address of Hupmobile dealer

## AUTOMOBILE NOTES.

Undoubtedly the weak points in the pneumatic tire whether it be that of the reticulated tread, the lack of up-keep and liability to puncture. It is clear that the direction in which improvements have been made is in the thickening of the tread, so as not only to render punctures less frequent, but also to give the tire a longer life, and thus save expense. In some makes of tire, the increase in thickness of the tread of the outer cover, and in others that of the inner tube, has been so great that the reticulated tread has been lost, and the tire practically becomes a solid one. In order to restore the reticulation, it has been proposed to reduce the air pressure in the internal tube, but this course not only exerts friction between the inner tube and the cover, which is in any case difficult to avoid altogether, but also produces a large flat surface, in contact with the road, which adds considerably to the frictional resistance, especially when the surface of the road is soft. The evils of traveling on slack pneumatic tires are known to all cycle riders, and are carefully avoided by keeping them inflated with a sufficient air pressure. The air pressure which it is necessary to maintain in the inner tubes of the pneumatic tires of a heavy vehicle is not less than 100 pounds per square inch, and should the slightest defect occur in the inner tube, the tire is not only rendered useless to support the vehicle but is speedily damaged if the collapse is not quickly repaired.

At the Tenth National Automobile Show in Madison Square Garden there will be the only complete motor cycle exhibit in New York in 1919 by the Motorcycle Manufacturers' Association. An inspection of the new models on display will show that the motorcycle is not only a pleasure vehicle for poor and rich alike, ranging in price from \$100 for the small single-cylinder machine to more than \$500 for the expensive four-cylinder touring type, but also a utility vehicle as well. General refinement seems to be the tendency for 1919. Many improvements have been made in spring forms as the result of hard road contests during the past year. Some of the machines appear with spring frames and longer wheel base, all of which make for the comfort of the rider. As regards the appearance of the motorcycle better quality and more lasting material as well as more decorative finish are the aim of the manufacturers. Handicraft control is practically universal, and magneto ignition will be more popular than ever, several of the makers having decided to make this type of machine appear as standard equipment, instead of optional as heretofore. Increased power apparently is a general tendency, and mechanical oilers are also in evidence, which eliminate guesswork in lubrication, only the best oil being used. Several of the manufacturers have decided to abolish the muffler cut-out switch, with the muffler improvement noticeable, should make the motorcycle of 1919 as silent as a weed as its forerunner, the bicycle.

Two Chalmers-Detroit chassis models will be manufactured in 1919, the "Thirty" and the "Forty," both a continuation of those presented for 1909. The change, while important, are in any case radical. The new Chalmers-Detroit "Thirty" will have a 31½-inch wheel base, three inches longer than the 1909 Forty. It will have 34-inch wheels—two inches larger than last season. The hood will be three inches longer and two inches higher in keeping with the larger body. The tank will be large and roomy. The "Thirty" motor is more powerful than the year last. The 1919 "Forty" will have a 32½-inch wheel base, 34 inches longer. It has 35-inch wheels, and room for seven passengers. The 1909 Forty was a five-passenger car.

The Tenth National Automobile Show in Madison Square Garden, which will open on January 12, 1919, motor cars, motorcycles, and accessories over held in the famous building. There is a total of 332 different displays, of which there are 34 exhibits of complete cars, besides 246 cars shown in coupe, sedan, and 21 motorcycle exhibits. There will be an increase over last year of more than 7,000 feet of exhibition space, which the show managers by ingenious methods were able to do out of the garden. There is not one foot of unused space allowed for exhibition purposes. This situation is indeed a striking commentary on the growth of the industry when it is realized that at the first automobile show in New York in 1895, there were only 50 exhibitors who displayed their product in the Garden.

Motorworks among the runabouts costing much less than \$1,000 is the Hippomobile made by the Hippo Motor Car Company. The Hippomobile is a motor car, motor cycle, and accessories over held in the famous building. There is a total of 332 different displays, of which there are 34 exhibits of complete cars, besides 246 cars shown in coupe, sedan, and 21 motorcycle exhibits. There will be an increase over last year of more than 7,000 feet of exhibition space, which the show managers by ingenious methods were able to do out of the garden. There is not one foot of unused space allowed for exhibition purposes. This situation is indeed a striking commentary on the growth of the industry when it is realized that at the first automobile show in New York in 1895, there were only 50 exhibitors who displayed their product in the Garden.

is shaft driven. There are two foot brakes and two emergency brakes. A Bosch high-tension magneto is provided.

Something new in the Garden show is to be found in nearly every one of the models exhibited. Some of the new points of interest are found in Allen, Franklin, and in Lubrication. In both of these types that seem to be gaining favor is the four-passenger runabout, which is but a tonneau without doors, built low in the back and sides, yet providing plenty of room for passengers. The cars in the Garden show range from the costliest on the market down to the little runabout that is cheap enough for anyone.

In 1901, Mr. Byron J. Carter, then of Jackson, Mich., realizing the shortcomings of geared transmissions as used in automobiles, began experiments for improvement, being naturally attracted to the friction system because of its simplest advantages. After months of careful research, the first Carter friction-driven automobile appeared in the summer of 1903. This automobile was of the runabout type, and in addition to the radical improvement in transmission it was well designed and constructed. The car has run more than 50,000 miles and is now, without repairs, apparently in condition for additional service.

A remarkable car has been brought out by the Western Manufacturing Company of Cleveland, Ohio. The car in question is ingeniously convertible. Ordinarily it is a runabout. By the addition of a surrey seat the runabout is transformed into a four-passenger motor car. The same runabout, by the addition of a special box back, is converted into a light delivery car. The vehicle is illustrated on the double page of cars appearing in this issue.

The present four-cylinder Carters may be regarded as an improvement of the former two-cylinder motor without a single radical change. This car will appear in the coming season in two sizes. Both have the Carter friction transmission, the nucleus around which the first Carters was built.

The most grueling sort of endurance contest in which motor cars have participated are 24-hour races. As a rule out of about fifteen cars starting in these races only four or five will finish at all, the remainder breaking down in the course of the contest from some mechanical weakness. Some cars have started in eight or more of these terrific grinds and have never finished. At the 24-hour race held at the W. P. Exposition at Seattle, a Hudson "Twenty" took car swept around the course for hours at a time making mile after mile with the utmost consistency in a 10 day endurance contest. The construction of this car is interesting, as its low selling price is considered. The rear axle is of the semi-floating type, shaft driven, and is strongly reinforced at the points where the greatest shocks are likely to occur. Two large double-acting pistons are provided at each end of the rear axle. The car is built for the man who is satisfied with a speed of 55 miles an hour. The motor, four-cylinder vertical, water cooled, is simple, very strong, and amply powerful. The transmission is the three-speed sliding gear selective type used on all standard cars.

Official Meteorological Summary, New York, N. Y., December, 1909.

Atmospheric pressure Highest, 30.49, lowest, 29.87, mean, 29.92. Temperature Highest, 54, date, 4th, lowest, 24, date, 20th, mean of warmest 41, date, 6th, coolest day, 11.5, date, 20th, mean of minimum, 34, date, 14th, 38.1, mean of minimum, 26.1, absolute mean, 34.4, normal, 34.1, deficiency compared with the mean of years, 2.7. Warmest day occurred on December, 4, in 1891, coolest mean, 35, in 1878. Absolute maximum and minimum of December for 39 years, 48 and -4. Average daily average since January, 4.7. Precipitation, 4.00, greatest in 24 hours, 2.18, date, 13th, 14th, average for December for 39 years, 2.43. Accumulated deficiency since January 1st, 1.87. Greatest precipitation, 4.86, in 1864, least, 0.96, in 1877. Wind Prevailing direction, E. Total movement, 11,944 miles, average hourly velocity, 10.1; maximum velocity, 55 miles per hour. Weather Clear days, 14, partly cloudy, 8, cloudy, 9; on which 6.01 or more of precipitation occurred. E. Wind, 12th. Snowfall 11.4.

Many an inventor has wondered whether the patent law forbids his experimenting with a patented device. The answer is: It all depends upon the character of the experiment. Suppose that an inventor is interested in flying machines, and that his primary object is to improve the Wright machine. Had he the privilege of building a Wright machine himself and flying it, in order to study the performance as well as to acquaint himself with the art of flying? We think not. He has no right to build the machine for the purpose of learning how to fly or of studying its performance in any way. Had he bought the machine from the Wright brothers or their licensees he would undoubtedly have the right to use the machine in that way.

1910 Registration and License Laws in Pennsylvania as a considerable number of new cars were introduced, some as early as in regard to the 1912 regulations and license in different States, the Bureau of the Automobile Club of America has issued a chart showing how the various States regulate registration and license for the new year, where renewals are necessary, and where the old registration or license is still operative. A synopsis of this chart for New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Rhode Island is as follows:

New York—Registration of cars in New York State are perpetual on the car originally registered. If car changes ownership, the new owner must be registered. If new car is purchased, same must be registered. Transfers are not made.

New Jersey—Registration of car and driving license is required annually, and same can be procured direct from the Bureau of Tolls of the State.

Pennsylvania—Pennsylvania requires both registration of car and driving license annually, application blanks for which can be procured from the Bureau of Tolls. Non-residents, of States that recognize, are allowed ten days exemption from registration.

Massachusetts—Registration required annually; also driving license for owner and chauffeur. Owner's driving license must be renewed annually, expiring December 31st. Annual driving license required by owner or chauffeur. Non-residents exempt for ten days from registration and driving license.

Rhode Island—Registration and driving license required. Fees of registration based upon horsepower. Non-residents duly registered in home State are exempt for ten days.

Electron—A Metal Lighter than Aluminum.

According to Kosson, a technical review appearing at Flushing, the Grichen-Electron works exhibited at the aeronautic exposition at Frankfurt-on-the-Main in November presented a new metal, the Electron, is claimed to be much lighter than aluminum and at the same time much more durable.

The lightest metal employed for technical purposes up to the present time is aluminum, and the alloys of aluminum, the strength and the durability of which are however lower than those of the new metal. The density of aluminum and its alloys has been nearly 2.7, and the Grichen-Electron works has discovered that magnesium is utilizable for technical purposes. By the admixture of magnesium, the price of which is comparatively considerable, the new metal, an alloy is produced of a density of 1.75 to 1.8, possessing great solidity, strength, and elasticity, and at the same time readily workable. The color of these alloys resembles that of silver, and they possess great sonorous quality.

The new metal is said to behave very well as regards change of temperature, and it responds to all technical requirements, in the air it manufactures with a coating of protective oxide. As cast metal it offers a resistance up to 18 kilograms per square millimeter and has at the same time an extension capacity up to 10 per cent. It is also very resistant to oxidation, such as compression, rolling, etc., the physical properties of this metal, e. g., strength and elasticity, can be materially improved without its density being considerably increased. The new metal, we may thus obtain a tensile resistance up to 25 kilograms per square millimeter, and an extension capacity as high as 10 per cent.

By varying the quantity of metal in the alloy and the method of using it, the quantities of electron may be varied within very wide limits. The uses of the metal are therefore very numerous. It is particularly desirable in the case of its use in constructing lightness and at the same time great strength.

The physical properties of the metal electron are claimed to be superior to those of aluminum, the proportionate quantity necessary for technical purposes is 40 per cent or more, compared with the weight of aluminum. It is anticipated that electron will prove exceedingly useful in the construction of airplanes and automobiles inasmuch as in most of its properties it is superior to aluminum and its alloys. A manufacturing of the same object, one would require to use 40 per cent less of electron than of aluminum.

The "Electron" alloy requires 6,000 kilograms of aluminum, which costs about \$1.60, to produce 1,000 kilograms of electron. A large automobile company, by its mechanism, about 60 kilograms of aluminum, which could be replaced, according to the statement of the manufacturer, by 15 kilograms of electron.





# THE KNOBS WILL STOP YOUR SKIDDING

## THE MORGAN & WRIGHT NOBBY TREAD

**a new non-skid tire designed and made by Morgan & Wright, makers of "Good Tires." As a safeguard against skidding and drive-slipping, it has never been approached in non-skid tire construction.**

The idea, this knob, made of the toughest rubber it is possible to produce, sets the road like a magnet and prevents skidding or drive slip even on wet asphalt, pavement or roads covered with snow or ice. It has passed the experimental tests. Records from all sections show that not only is effectiveness, but also in service readily it is a vastly superior to the existing styles of treaded tires.

The tread knobs expose nearly as much surface to the wear of the road as a plain tread of comparable wear shows. It is very lasting.

Made of a white rubber stock, it is by odds the "cheapest" looking tire on the road, and will last longer than any other tire.

Meets of a white rubber stock, it is by odds the "cheapest" looking tire on the road, and will last longer than any other tire.

## MORGAN & WRIGHT NOBBY TREAD TIRE

MORGAN & WRIGHT, DETROIT

BRANCHES, AGENCIES OR DEALERS EVERYWHERE

keeping prices down, there is little doubt that the American maker will sooner or later figure in the foreign trade. This is particularly true in connection with the small, medium priced car, a field that has been neglected by the foreigners. With the rapid growth of the business there have been developed many new capitalists of industry, who as pioneers have blazed the way for motor-car trade, and who are certain to be important factors in future industrial life.

### The Modern Electric Automobile.

(Continued from page 51)  
current consumption. This arrangement is necessary to keep any excessive rush of current at any time away from the battery. Nothing is more detrimental to the capacity and the life of the battery. A rapid increase of current flow and speed from step to step will result in a jerking action in the whole driving mechanism, which of course means rapid wear and possible breakage of the driving parts. It is easier to break a spring with a short jerk than with an even smooth pull.

The limited power carried in one storage of the battery has forced the designer of electric carriages to avoid as far as possible all losses due to friction in the method of transmission of the power from the motor to the wheels as well as in the bearings. The high-speed motor, with its advantage of light weight and high efficiency in starting and in climbing hills necessitates, in the most approved methods of construction a double reduction of speed. This means that the motive power is first transmitted with a reduction of speed to a countershaft, and then to the rear axle. The first reduction of the countershaft is accomplished in different ways and with varying success. The earlier carriages used metal spur gears for this purpose, but they proved to be unsatisfactory on account of their noisy running and great loss of power. It may be mentioned here that where

there is noise there is friction, and consequently where there is friction there is loss of power. The next step of improvement was to make the one gear of compressed rawhide. A little loss noise in running resulted. But this construction was still far from being perfect. After passing through the stages of worm and arrow-toothed gears, a perfect transmission was obtained when the Ransell silent chain was introduced. This chain is self-adjustable to pitch after wear. In flexibility and high efficiency, it is an ideal, high-speed transmission device. It is found today on every high grade electric car. It kept in proper alignment and well adjusted the life of this chain is indefinite. To receive the best service, it must be dust-proof, it must, and kept well lubricated.

The power is transmitted from countershaft to the rear wheels on all up-to-date machines by means of roller chains or through a shaft and bevel gears. The advantage of one type over the other has been much disputed. The greatest objection to the roller chains is their noisy running, their rapid wear, their exposure to dirt and dust, and their loss in efficiency after wear. Some reasons for the superiority of the shaft and bevel gear transmission are its quietness, its cleanliness, its long life, and its increased efficiency after use. Its durability is due to the fact that the bevel gears run permanently in oil and that they are lubricated. Moreover, the shaft drive does not require any adjustment, and when well designed, all parts of the running gear transmission will stay in absolute alignment. The necessary adjustment of the double chain drive will soon create a variation in the distance from the front to the rear axle on both sides, for two chains will never stretch alike. This disadvantage will affect the steering, decrease the life of the tires, and result in a loss of power. If the chain sprockets are

not in proper alignment after adjustment the chains will rub sideways on the sprockets, which will, of course, shorten the life of the transmission and result in a loss of efficiency.

It would be very interesting to measure the distance of both axles on either side of double chain-driven cars after they have been in service in the hands of the average driver and under the care of the average garage for several months to find out if the axles are still parallel. Absence of friction is an absolutely necessary factor in the construction of electric automobiles. For this reason the proper type of bearings must be applied to the motor, countershaft, and wheels. The ball bearing the highest achievement in bearing construction, has proven to be superior to any other type, and will be found today in any high grade automobile. Once properly packed with grease this bearing will not require any attention for several thousand miles. If proper slams for the load to be carried are selected, no wear can be noticed.

Every electric carriage should be equipped with reliable brakes. It is important that they should stop the car going forward as well as backward. It is not the number of brakes with which a car is equipped, but their efficiency, which insure safety. Most modern cars are equipped with one of two types, namely the external brake in which a steel band is open out against the inner surface of the drum. The braking action in this construction type brake shoes are fixed inside a drum. A small movement of the brake lever will cause the brake shoes to open out against the inner surface of the drum. The braking action should be applied at the rear wheels. All brakes attached to the motor, if used frequently, are detrimental to the motor and the transmission system. For this

reason also, the electric brake which seemed in earlier days to be inseparable from any electric vehicle, is condemned by the modern designer of electric conveyances. Even on the heavy electric street car it had to give room, on this account, to the air brake in which the brakes are operated by a lever, a balancing bar should be inserted in the system to insure equal pressure on both brakes.

Times influence the performance of an electric automobile more than may be imagined. Various designs of tires show a variation of up to fifty per cent in efficiency, so that the speed per single charge of the battery is affected. Special points to be borne in mind in the care of pneumatic tires are that rust as well as oil is very detrimental to them, and that it is necessary to keep tire well inflated.

If the storage battery of a few years ago be compared with the up-to-date battery, it will be found that a very much decreased weight with a large increase in capacity and durability has been obtained.

The various wire connections on an electric car should be laid with care, and the wire slings should be large enough to carry the heaviest possible loads without loss of power. As far as possible, all leads should be carried directly from the battery to the controller, and then to the motor, and all connections should be tight and securely locked. One common fault in early cars was the loose hanging wires running in different directions, without any attempt at a methodical arrangement. Good sanitation is necessary. Because it is able to resist acid, weather, and mechanical strain, rubber of good quality and sufficient size has proven to be the best material for this purpose.



## Here is a Special Car for a few Select Buyers

### Price, for either Standard Touring \$2500 or Torpedo Bodies

**ABOUT** three hundred prospective purchasers who have it in mind to pay from four to five thousand dollars can "get in" on this made-to-order Springfield for 1910.

For the past three years a limited number of these cars (about 100 each year) have been made for special buyers, who have desired certain features in their cars not to be found in any cars on the market regardless of price.

Hence the Springfield has come to be known as the "made-to-order" car.

Until this year no attempt has been made to manufacture more than the few cars, which were easily sold by private sale to the class of buyers to whom a car of this character appeals.

For this reason practically no advertising has ever appeared concerning the Springfield.

This year, however, we have increased our facilities, and hope to be able to supply in the neighborhood of **three hundred cars**.

The fact that we manufacture practically every part that enters into the Springfield makes it impossible (even if we were so inclined) to make them in the quantities possible with an assembled car.

No apology is made for the low price we have placed upon the car. This price enables us to supply the best material of every kind it is possible to buy, and in addition gives us a fair profit.

We are willing to let the specifications speak for the quality of material used and the general character of the car.

The automobile dealer, familiar with all makes, will immediately recognize in these specifications and the accompanying illustrations an automobile of the strict de-luxe type—a car of the character that will always have a ready sale among those who are in a position to buy the **best cars**.

#### SPECIFICATIONS:

**MOTOR**—Four cylinder, vertical, water cooled, 1 inch bore, 4 1/2 inch stroke.

**VALVES**—All on one side, horizontally, operated by single cam shaft with valve tappets with shims, and mounted on flexible Bell Bearings. Intake (long) Pump and exhaust valve mounted on pedestal insulated from the Bell Bearings.

**TRANSMISSION**—Automatic type, sliding gear, chain operated, horizontal and reverse; mounted on parallel Improved F. & A. Axle Ball Bearings. All gears and shafts of best material, Chrome Vanadium steel.

**SEAR AXES**—One piece axle ends drive Chrome Vanadium steel bearings of the double flange, square type. Crank and shafts Chrome Vanadium steel, heat treated, mounted on pedestal insulated from the Bell Bearings.

**FRONT AXLE**—Special 1 inch drive shaft in one piece, of Chrome Vanadium steel, with ball bearing mounting brackets.

**FRAMES**—Pressed steel, reinforced.

**SPRINGS**—Vanadium steel, semi-elliptic front, three-quarter elliptic rear.

**LIGHTS**—Large square, 4-unit oil or gas, vacuum battery double system with generator Type D-4 Bosch magnets run on 12 volt plus to each other.

**LUBRICATION**—Positive automatic oil system enclosed in shield case of metal.

**DRIVE**—Shaft, with heavy bevel gears of best treated Chrome Vanadium steel.

**BRIDES**—Two independent systems, internal expanding type, Vanadium lined. Front brake 14 inches in diameter, operated by cam arrangement.

**ROOST**—Insulated floor, dry or wet, passenger direct control and adjustment in greater head room.

**TIRE**—36 x 4 inches, one, 36 x 4 inches, two. Quick inflation.

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**GASOLINE CAPACITY**—Twenty gallons under tank and muffler—car over construction, front and rear with no leak joints.

**RADIATOR**—Large double, radiator in rear, made very large and efficient.

**CARBURETOR**—Brass, four feed type, simplicity of design and easy adjustment.

**WHEEL BASE**—122 inches.

**WEIGHT**—3,000 pounds.

**GEAR RATIO**—11.

**CLAMPABLE**—10 inches.

**LUBRIC**—Grease, plus three measure pressure, no.

**EQUIPMENT**—Two gas and three oil lamps, general 10 inch, 100 and 200 watt.

**PRICE**—\$2,500.

Correspondence Solicited

**The Springfield Motor Car Company**

311 Monroe Street  
SPRINGFIELD, ILL.



### HOW TO OVERHAUL A CAR

(Continued from page 58)

son for this is that the shafts, especially gear shafts, wear down and must be ground true and no manufacturer seems to appreciate the useful use of boring reamers bushings slightly under size. The pilot bushing being solid must be specially made to suit the shaft. Aside from this one a skillful amateur can make a good job of scraping his own bushings if he has a suitable set of scrapers and time and patience. Red lead is used to test the fit. Of course the gear case is not come out of the car and at intervals the bushing case are bolted down tight and the shaft turned to determine whether it is tight or free and whether it makes contact all over.

In refitting gear shafts and bushings it is not merely not only to achieve a proper fit but to keep the shafts absolutely parallel. If they are not the gear teeth will not bear squarely across their face but will wear away at their corners as exaggerated in the dotted position, Fig. 4.

In the matter of gear replacements the best result is naturally gained by replacing it to its mating gears if either is badly worn since otherwise the shafts will have to run against a bad profile and would wear away sooner. If the car has old chain drive the differential shaft bushings will need refitting at the same time. The parts of a differential which wear fastest are the bushings A of the spur or bevel pinions B (Fig. 5) since these are the hardest things to lubricate. To take the differential apart it may be necessary to file the ends of the bad end over through bolts holding it together. In that case the nuts should be reduced in thickness so that the bolts can be threaded over again on reassembling. (The bolts in Fig. 6 do not go through.) It is very important not to give the shafts a better differential the slightest chance of working loose and the same applies to the bolts holding the change gears. Another point that is difficult to remember is liable to cut the bearing between the differential or gear hub and the sleeve into which the hub of the differential shaft extends. This sleeve runs in plain or ball bearings in the case with the shaft or gear hub turning inside of it whenever the car goes around a turn. Scooter or later new bushings are needed.

If oil is used in the gear case as it must be if plain bushings are used instead of ball bearings it becomes something of a problem to lubricate the bearings effectively without excessive leakage of oil. The writer suggests a better way of doing it. This sleeve runs in plain or ball bearings in the case with the shaft or gear hub turning inside of it whenever the car goes around a turn. Scooter or later new bushings are needed.

In the rear axle of a shaft-driven car the thing most likely to need adjustment is the differential. There are various ways of getting at it depending on the design of the axle casing. If the axle is divided vertically in the fore and aft on the same plane the rear springs must be jacked up and disassembled from the axle and the halves of the axle drawn asunder after taking off the wheel. A better arrangement is to have a removable cover plate on the casing through which the differential is inserted and withdrawn. This is found especially in axle of the floating type with wheels running on ball or roller bearings on the ends of the axle tubes and driven by floating shafts extending from the differential to the clutch plates engaging the outer ends of the wheel hubs. To remove the differential the hub caps are first removed



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Without rumble seat With 14 in solid rubber tires

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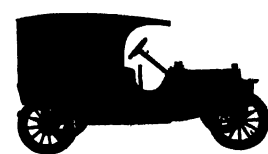
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Model "D" Merchants' Delivery

and the floating shafts being set from the differential without putting any strain on the shafts holding down the differential are removed, the lower driving pinions withdrawn, and the differential lifted out.

Unless a car is more than one year old it is not necessary to assume that the differential needs overhauling. By jacking up one rear wheel and rocking it back and forth, the total extent of slack in the differential may be estimated. It is also usually possible to reach the pinions through openings in the differential shell, and by shaking them to determine whether they are loose. If so, they should be reworked and the pin or spider replaced if worn. Frequently means are provided for advancing slightly the driving pinion or spider or both to compensate for wear. If this adjustment is disturbed the gears should be moved in a straight line and not rotated around, else the teeth will engage only at the small or large ends instead of over their full length. By rubbing red lead on the teeth and turning the gear, one can tell where the teeth touch.

If cup and cone ball bearings are used whether in the rear axle or in the transmission, they were placed in the differential immediately. Fig. 7 shows the effect of wear on a stationary ball cone, e. g. on an axle spindle. The pressure comes against the stationary bottom portion and while the cup wears a true path the cone is destroyed. It is possible though not always worth while to prolong the life of the cone by giving it a quarter or half turn on the shaft or axle. If the cup is stationary and the cone rotates eccentrically the cup will be the first and wear out. When the ball of a set is renewed the entire set should be replaced with it.

We come now to the engine the last and in many ways the most important part to overhaul. The owner is strongly advised not to attempt to refit the main crank shaft bearings unless he has had considerable previous experience and knows exactly what to do. On the other hand it is not at all hard to regrind and replace valves, replace worn valve lifters and their guides and do the ordinary tinkering and adjusting with the timer, carburetor etc. It is best not to tamper with the magneto further than to clean the interrupter and adjust the interrupter contact points if worn.

To overhaul the engine first strip it of all small gear. Take off the magneto first marking the coupling so that it can be replaced exactly as it was, and tag the wires. Remove and tag the oil pipes, blow through them to see that they are clear and plug them to exclude dirt. Disconnect the carburetor, remove the timing take out the spark plugs and plug the holes with waste, remove the dust pan, take out and mark the valves, take off the water pipes, the pump, and the fan. Now take out the cylinders. If no further dismantling is contemplated the pistons made may be arranged as follows: Care that none of the carbon falls into the crank case and the piston rings are likewise cleaned without removal if possible. If the rings are leaky as proved by failure to hold compression when the valves are tight new rings are put in and fitted to the housing pins which prevent them from falling. At the same time the carbon can be scraped from the inside of the cylinder heads.

Take down the oil pan. Test the fit of the wrist pin and crank pin bearings by rocking the pistons and connecting rods on the pins. Do not confuse a rocking motion due to loose fit with play in the pins. A certain amount of play is always provided. A crank pin bushing is likely to wear conical (see shaded area) if the rod is offset as in Fig. 4, and if the rod is sprung the bushing may wear flat mouthed at both ends. The crank pin itself will in time wear flat at the point of greatest pressure, but indicated in Fig. 9. It takes more skill than can be expected off-hand to fix it up again, but it can be done with a file

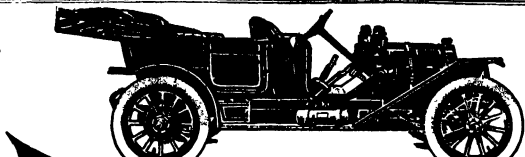
Swim the and callipers. It is not necessary to file clear around the unworn portion of the pin, since a slight deviation from its original axis does no harm, neither is it absolutely essential that it should have the same diameter throughout. Its new axis, however, must be absolutely parallel to the shaft. It is best to throw away worn bushings and put in new, taking out or inserting them till a fit is obtained, and scraping no more than is necessary. A worn wrist pin bushing must be renewed, and usually the wrist pin must be ground true. If the crank pins are oiled through passages drilled in the crank shaft, their lubrication is probably perfect. If, however, they are oiled solely by splash and the oil holes are in the upper half of the crank pin bushing, a considerable improvement can be made by replacing the upper bushings with solid ones and introducing the oil through the bottom half by brasing a copper tube in the cap to act as an oil scoop (Fig 10). The bottom half is then drilled and provided with an oil groove for about half its length. It is a principle of lubrication that the oil should always be introduced at the unloaded side of the joint, and that any breaks in the continuity of the loaded surface merely afford the oil an avenue of escape under pressure.

To renew the rivets, first take off the old leather and use it as a pattern. Select the new leather carefully for uniform and correct thickness, and cut it about half an inch short. The rivets should be approximately that of the old piece (Fig 11). Locate the end and the middle holes for the rivets, counting, stretching them considerably so the rivet heads will not come flush, and soak the strip in water till it has swelled out sufficiently to go in place. Then cut it a steel bar as an anvil, and put in the end and middle rivets first, holding the strip meanwhile by wire nails. The riveting must be completed before the strip dries.

#### AUTOMOBILE FIRE-ENGINE.

(Continued from page 68.)  
The engine proper. After reaching the scene of the fire the driving gear is uncoupled and the pumps are put in connection with the engine. The water engines of course must draw their water from a hydrant, well, or other supply. They have done splendid work in suburbs wherever fire stations of available power or an adequate high-pressure system can be held in reserve. The best of those machines can run to a fire with a crew of seven men at speeds up to 40 miles per hour and carry 1,000 feet of hose. The pumps deliver 700 gallons of water per minute at pressures up to 160 pounds to the square inch. The regular steam fire engine has a capacity varying from 400 gallons per minute to 1,600 gallons in the case of the largest size of machines. Such a motor fire engine usually contains two 3-gallon chemical extinguishers, and heavy suction hose for hydrant connection, the steam, main holders, large alarm bell, the usual equipment of lamps, lanterns, tools, and small scaling ladders. In the opinion of many fire engineers a suburban fire station should have two such motor engines, with possibly a steam engine in reserve. Again, steam engines may also be held at reserve stations, instead of in large number of single steamers. This means considerable economy in the purchase, equipment, and maintenance of a fire house, while the increased hose, hose section and the speed of the motors are an efficient service to be rendered.

Finally, we may consider machines in which no essential change in the type of their construction except to use the gasoline motor and means of propulsion in place of the usual boiler. Typical of these are the large combination hose wagons and chemical engines which carry 1,000 feet of 2½-inch fire hose and answer every purpose of the horse-drawn wagon which they are destined to supplant. Fuel for 150 miles can be stored in the gasoline tanks and speeds



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The new Haynes embodies everything in an automobile that is worth having. It is a unusually attractive in appearance, it's workmanlike construction and general quality are unexcelled by the highest priced foreign or domestic cars. It's just the car to meet your requirements and keep your interest. It has no hidden weaknesses, no parts of unknown value. Every detail of its construction represents years of experiment and study, every

doubtful element has been discarded.

There's no economy in sacrificing enjoyment and comfort to save a few hundred dollars in the purchase price. A cheap car may look good, and do its work well for a time, but it can't last.

It costs money to build a car that will stand the test year in and year out. There's bound to be skimping somewhere in a cheap car. That means trouble for you sooner or later, and disappointment.

An automobile is one thing you would not like to apologize for. You can't afford an automobile unless you can buy a good one. No man can.

Perhaps you are willing to pay more for the car that suits you, than a new

Haynes costs. But what's the use? A better car can't be built at any price. Don't forget that. No matter what you're willing to pay, find out all about this car. Make your own comparisons.

Take a ride in one. Notice the finish, the upholstery. Above all study the engine and ease of operation. There's pleasure in every mile. No matter how inexperienced, you'll appreciate the difference between this car of established reputation and other makes.

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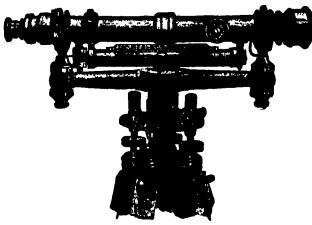
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up to 40 and 45 miles an hour with full load are easily achieved. To carry the heavy load for the high pressure service of New York City a special automobile wagon has been found most useful and in over a year of service has met every test. Put into use in January, 1919, it was successfully operated on snowy and slippery streets and never failed in responding to an alarm. This vehicle is built to run up to 30 miles an hour on city streets climb any reasonable grade, and to carry the full strength of a high-pressure engine company. It carries forty 50-foot lengths of 1 1/2 inch heavy rubber high pressure fire hose and has a turret nozzle mounted upon the drivers seat from which a powerful stream of steam can be delivered. It takes the place of a three-horse wagon previously employed. In fact this automobile truck of New York City has been the logical outcome of the high pressure service in the lower part of Manhattan. The future will probably see it extensively used in New York and in other cities provided with high-pressure service.

One of the uses of the automobile confined to the emergency by engines (chemical combination) and hose wagons. Aerial ladder trucks up to 85 feet in height are now made for motor trucks and have all the essential features of this important piece of apparatus previously requiring three horses. A useful aerial motor truck is mounted upon a 50 horse power four-cylinder automobile. The automobile taking the place of the horse which thus making a vehicle slightly longer than the ordinary ladder truck with its horse, but steered by a tiller wheel in the rear in the same manner. The whole machine can be turned in its length around corners and is often more easily controlled and regulated than with horse teams being capable of running 25 miles per hour with full equipment and crew on a five per cent grade. This apparatus

is of interest in comparison with the somewhat shorter ladder devices known as "muzzies" which are in use in Europe and which have been developed there to considerable efficiency.

That the motor-propelled apparatus is bound to come eventually and to supplant horse-drawn machines seems to be the opinion of progressive fire fighters. Chief Croker spoke in this vein to the writer and said that it was only a matter of expense in the original outlay that prevented motor fire engines from being extensively adopted in the suburbs of the greater city. In fact during the last weeks of the past year the Fire Commission advertised for bids for furnishing two automobile combination gasoline engines and hose wagons for the borough of Brooklyn and one for the borough of Queens. At present the high efficiency motor fire engines cost more than steam fire engines of greater power, and as fire fighting power is desired first of all, in nearly every large city department, the chiefs prefer heavy units to increased mobility and speed. On the other hand the makers of motor fire apparatus claim that the economies of fire apparatus more than justify the increased expense.

There are several questions that arise into the operation of commercial motor vehicles that naturally arise in connection with fire apparatus. One is, the matter of tire, but it must be recalled that the actual mileage of fire apparatus is inconsiderable and that furthermore the best fire vehicles are now supplied with rubber tires, so that there would be no more wear in one case than in the other. Fire engines, owing to their portability and the speed with which they must be brought to full working capacity, are notoriously inefficient machines from a mechanical standpoint, and the gasoline engine in no way works for worse conditions. If reasonable economy of operation is secured as well as an efficiency of service, then with the extra

ordinary decrease in the cost of maintenance the gasoline motor-driven machine is bound to have a successful future.

### ANTI JOY RIDE DEVICES.

(Continued from page 54.)

Other parts of the car by means of attachments fastened inside the hood. For example by means of two thumb screws through the dash, which are inaccessibly until the hood is raised, the footboards can be secured against removal, and this will make it impossible to open the cover of the gear box. Furthermore, there is combined with the lock a vibration indicator to record movements of the vehicle.

Every precaution to render the device proof against tampering seems to have been taken by the inventor, who asserts that it is impossible to start the engine, open the hood, or operate the car without the owner's knowledge or consent unless he has forgotten to withdraw the key or has given a duplicate key into the possession of the chauffeur. In the latter event the chauffeur cannot take the car out on the road without having the approximate distance traveled registered by the vibration recorder.

The only visible part of this is a polished brass plate 1 1/2 by 4 inches in size which is set into the dash. In the upper part of this is set a casing containing a compact switch for use with any system of ignition and, also a Yale lock provided on its inner and with a cam plate and contact piece. The lock key takes the place of the usual switch lever, and the switch cannot be operated without it. It is also impossible to remove the key until the switch has been turned to "off" position.

Two bell-crank levers surrounding the barrel of the Yale lock behind the switch are operated by the cam plate of the lock, and their long arms are attached to small steel cables that pass through dynalux screws into the dash under the

hood. These cables lead to two special spring latches secured to the lower inner corners of the dash in a position to engage the slots cut in strips of angle iron fitted to the inside of the hood on either side. Thus, when the key and cam are in open position, as shown in the drawings, the latches are withdrawn and the hood can be raised, but when the switch has been turned to "off" and the key removed, the latches are released and hold the hood against all attempts to raise it. The engines may be run with the hood open, and the hood will lock automatically when closed.

In a special recess directly beneath the Yale lock is placed a vibration recorder, resembling a pedometer in appearance and action, which is held securely by a plate provided with a spring to press against the back of the instrument. The vibration recorder is so adjusted that it will not be affected by the running of the engine while the car is at rest, but will record the vibrations of the car when in motion. The plate is sealed by a wire and lead seal and also by a strip of paper pasted across the back with the owner's name written thereon, and if these seals are broken explanations from the chauffeur are in order, as he is the only person except the owner who has access to the hood chamber. The switch can be removed without disturbing the sealed chamber holding the recorder, but only after the hood has been raised. It is impossible to remove any part of the mechanism from the exposed side of the dash.

### MAKING YOUR OWN REPAIRS.

(Continued from page 61.)

graphite, and in order to apply it, the springs must be relieved of the weight of the car. To do this, apply jacks to the corners of the frame, and outside them until the tires are clear of the ground. The weight of the main and wheels will

(Continued on page 71.)







# A Wonderful Business Story

We have told in a book—which we ask you to send for—one of the greatest business stories ever told. A story of how John N. Willys stepped in two years to the topmost place in motordom. Of how *Overland* automobiles rose in 24 months to this year's sale of \$24,000,000. How a factory has grown like magic to a payroll of 4,000 men—to a daily output of 30 carloads of automobiles. And how a large part of the demand of the country has been centered around one remarkable car.

## The Discovery

Here is an outline of the story—just enough to make you want it all

Two years ago, Mr. John N. Willys was a dealer in automobiles. There came to him one day a remarkable car—evidently the creation of a mechanical genius. The simplest, sturdiest, smoothest-running car that anyone around there had seen

The name of the car was the *Overland*. And the price—then \$1,250—was as amazing as the car itself

The sale of this car spread like wildfire. Each car sold brought a call for twenty others like it. Old and new motor car owners came by the score to deposit advance money—attracted by the *Overland's* matchless simplicity

But the cars did not come. And when Mr. Willys went to the makers he found them on the verge of receivership.

The genius which had created this marvelous car could not finance the making, in the face of the 1907 panic.

## The New Start

Mr. Willys in some way met the overdue pay roll—took over the plant—and contrived to fill his customers' orders.

Then the cry came for more cars from every place where an *Overland* had been sold. As the new cars went out the demand became overwhelming. The factory capacity was overruled in short order. Then tents were erected.

Another factory was acquired, then another, but the demand soon outgrew all three.

During the next fiscal year these factories sent out 4,075 *Overland* cars. Yet the demand was not half supplied.

Dealers fairly fought for preference. Buyers paid premiums. None could be content with a lesser car when he once saw the *Overland*.

All this without advertising. About the only advertising the car ever had was what users told others

## The Pope-Toledo Plant

Mr. Willys' next step was to buy the Pope-Toledo factory—one of the greatest automobile plants in the country. This gave him four well-equipped factories—just 16 months from his start.

But the Toledo plant wasn't sufficient. So he gave his builders just 40 days to complete an addition larger than the original factory

Then he equipped these buildings with the most modern machinery—with every conceivable help and convenience—so that cars could be built here for less than anywhere else

Now 4,000 men work on *Overland* cars. The output is valued at \$140,000 per day. The contracts from dealers for this season's delivery call for 20,000 cars

Now this man has acquired 23 acres around his Toledo plant. And his purpose is to see—from this time on—that those who want *Overlands* get them

## Marvelous Sales

Dealers had ordered 16,000 of the 1910 *Overland* models before the first car was delivered. That means that each *Overland* sold the previous year had sold four others like it. And without any advertising.

This year's *Overland* sales will exceed \$24,000,000. Yet the *Overland* is but two years old.

## The \$1,000 Overland

This year an *Overland*—better than last year's \$1,250 car—is being sold for \$1,000. That is because the tremendous production has cut the cost 20 per cent.

A 25 horse-power car, capable of 50 miles an hour, for \$1,000, complete with lamps and magneto. Never did a maker give nearly so much for the money.

There are higher-powered *Overlands* for \$1,250—\$1,400—\$1,500. They are just as cheap in comparison as the \$1,000 model

The *Overlands* are unique in simplicity. They operate by pedal control. A ten-year-old child can master the car in a moment

They are made in the same factory, and by the same men as made the Pope-Toledo—a \$4,250 car. The reason for the price lies in the production of 125 cars per day

## Get the Whole Story

Send me this coupon to get the whole story, told in a fascinating book. Learn about the car which in two years captured so large a share of the whole trade of the country. See what has done this—what there is in the *Overland* to make it the most desired car in existence. Please cut out this coupon now.

F. A. Barker, Sales Manager,  
The Willys-Overland Company  
Toledo, Ohio

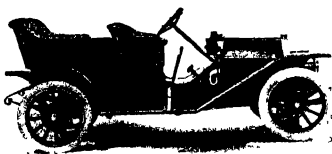
Please send me the book



Overland Model 30—Price \$1,000. 25 h. p.—102-inch wheel base. Made also with single running seat, double running seat and Top Tourer as slightly additional cost.

The  
*Cyclists*  
Two of the many  
Overland Models  
All prices include  
Magneto and full  
lamp equipment

Members of Association  
Licensed Automobile Manufacturers, Licensed Under  
Patent.



Overland Model 41—Price \$1,400. 40 h. p.—112-inch wheel base—5 passengers. Five lamps and Magneto included



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to secure a book giving a complete course of experiments in physics for the first year in high school. It is especially in electricity I would like a course, beginning at the very bottom and working up by simple and readily intelligible experiments. Have you such a book, or can one be procured from some of the large book supply houses? I am recommended and can supply you with Carhart and Chute's "High School Physics," for \$1.50 postpaid, and also (Lute's Laboratory Manual of Physics," for 90 cents postpaid. With these you will be equipped for learning the work in absence of a teacher up to the extent of college. The work is graded just as you request, and is just what is done by everyone fitting for college in the United States to-day.

(13170) J. F. says: 1. What is the exact length of a sidereal and a tropical year? A. The sidereal year is in mean solar time 365 days, 6 hours, 9 minutes, 9.57 seconds. The tropical year is in mean solar time 365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes, 46.3 seconds. These are not exact, but are correct within a hundredth of a second. 2. What do you hold of water switching? Do you think a person can locate water in the ground with the aid of a forced circuit? A. We do not "hold" anything about "water switching." We do not believe that water can be located underground by a stick.

(13171) A. J. H. says: Some time ago you had an explanation published in your SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN of how a square of 64 inches on changing the angles became an oblong with 48 squares. Please inform me how this is done and where the fallacy comes in. A. You will find the explanation of the fallacy of the oblong square, not to appear to increase one square inch in area, in our Notes and Queries of Vol. 50, No. 33, which we send for ten cents. The article occupies more than a column and is illustrated by drawings to make.

(13172) H. C. A. says: What is the chemical symbol for lithium? How is lithium paper made? Why do the acid and alkali have the property of changing the color of it? A. Lithium is a metallic element of unknown chemical character. Doubtless one of the colors is that of the molybdenum, the other that of its oxide. Lithium paper is made by generating a solution of lithium in water, adding dilute sulfuric acid to the solution, and allowing it to dry. If not used paper is destroyed, the solution is replaced by a drop of an acid below the paper is exposed to it.

(13173) W. B. J. says: Please describe the question and solving a mathematical problem in solving a triangle by logarithms.

### Acheson—Graphite Grease

You need not say to make and use. Time is fully saved. It is a fact that Acheson—Graphite Grease is the only one of its kind. Ask for Free Samples and Folder 318 V International Acheson—Graphite Co. Flinders Falls, N. Y. We Are the Only Makers of Graphite in the World

### The Regent Tire Co.

MANUFACTURERS OF THE Famous Regent Leather Tires "Anti-Skid and Non-Puncturable" 3313-3315 Trout Ave., Kansas City, Mo. The Most Complete Rubber Repair Department in the West

### Handy Man's Workshop and Laboratory

Compiled and Edited by A. RUSSELL BOND

12mo. 467 Pages. 370 Illustrations. Price \$3.00 postpaid.



EVERY practical mechanic, whether amateur or professional has been confronted many times with unexpected situations that call for the exercise of commonsense, ingenuity. The resourceful man who has not an iota of this sort successfully solves it, is eager to instruct public his methods of procedure. After all he has little to gain by keeping the matter to himself and appreciating the advice of other practical men in the same line of work. He is only too glad to contribute his own suggestions to the general fund of information. About a year ago it was decided to open a department in the Scientific American devoted to the interests of the handy man. There was an almost immediate response. Hundreds of valuable suggestions were sent from every part of this country and from abroad as well. Not only amateur mechanics but professional ones as well were eager to recount their experiences in emergencies and offer useful bits of information in various lines, electrical or "kinks" as they are called. Aside from these, many valuable contributions came from men in other walks of life—resourceful men, who showed their aptness at doing things about the house, in the garden, on the farm, the electrician and the man in the physics and chemical laboratory furnished another tributary to the flood of ideas. Automobiles, motor cycles, motor boats and the like frequently call for a display of ingenuity among a class of men who otherwise would never touch a tool. These also contributed a large share of suggestions that poured in upon us. It was apparent from the outset that the Handy Man's Workshop Department in the Scientific American would be a very valuable one for so large a volume of material, but rather than reject any really useful thing for lack of space we have collected the wealthier suggestions, which we present in the present volume. They have all been classified and arranged in eight chapters, under the following headings:

I. Fitting up a Workshop; II. Shop Kinks; III. Beldering of Metals; IV. The Handy Man in the Kitchen; V. The Handy Man's Recreational Laboratory; VI. The Handy Man's Electrical Laboratory; VII. The Handy Man About the House; VIII. The Handy Sportsman; IX. Model Toy Flying Machines. Index.

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transmitter electric and this vibration travels over the wire by an electric current. It means that when the transmitter and receiver are fully connected to receive a given point of space distance, that man is connected to the end of a message, therefore he travels in the air or in the vacuum. A. We understand your statement, but a man is not actually right in this way. When the telephone of a transmitter vibrates the variation of pressure upon the carbon particles in the transmitter causes an undulation in the current from the transmitter to the receiver at the other end of the line. Along the line a varying electric current flows, the carbon particles in the transmitter cause an undulation in the current from the transmitter to the receiver at the other end of the line. There is only an electric current along the line. There is no actual vibration of the same line as the telephone. The same line is required for the impulse to travel from transmitter to receiver as would be required for a message along in travel over the same wire to the same distance.

### NEW BOOKS, ETC.

ENTRANTS AND PRIZES. By William L. Scriven, Phil. Boston: The Boston Publishing Company. 12mo, 101 pp. Price, \$1.

This is a valuable treatise on the most practical methods for the manufacturer by the retail or wholesale purchaser of floating water in volume. It tells water pressure methods for migrating conditions, etc. It is an excellent book on the subject.

THE PRACTICE OF INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS. By Frank W. M. and William H. M. New York: The Fidelity and Casualty Company of New York. 1909. 12mo, 184 pp. Price 25 cents.

The prevention of industrial accidents is one of the most important subjects which have come to the fore in the opening years of the present century. The American Men of Safety and Insurance has obtained a series of new never-forgotten in the course of all manufacturers and great industrial concerns. It is found on its board of trustees, brings to say the least of the most important of being an excellent and practical manual and the book may be said to be a very creditable contribution of the share of work in the organization referred to and to similar enterprises. The position of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN as regards the

















# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

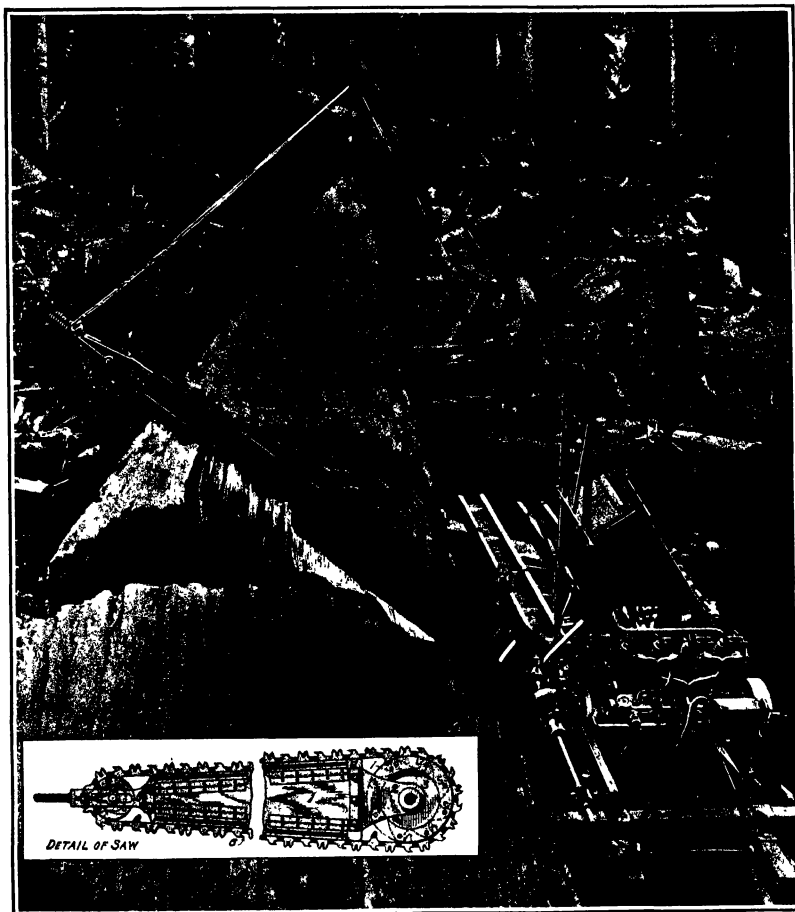
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A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS

Vol. 43, No. 4,  
ESTABLISHED 1845.

NEW YORK, JANUARY 22, 1910

10 CENTS A COPY  
\$5.00 A YEAR



The saw is a chain with tooth-links passing over grooved guide wheels at the ends of a frame.

CUTTING A REDWOOD TREE WITH A SAW DRIVEN BY AN ENGINE.—[See page 86.]



## ELECTRICITY.

The South Canadian Light House "Prince Frederick" has just an accident to its steering gear.

Mr. M. V. C. & H. R. R. announced early in 1910 that electric motor power will be used as far north as North White Plains. The motor at Washedown now made necessary by the change from electricity to steam will be done away with.

The State Commission of Highways of New York has asked for an appropriation of \$40,000 to be used by the Commission in developing experiments in economical means of road construction which would be suitable to various weights and classes of traffic.

The Public Service Commission of the State of New York for the First District, upon open bids for \$175 miles of rapid transit lines. The same work can be begun on these railways the sooner will the terrible congestion be done away with.

A German machine manufacturer has invented a new means of power transmission by the use of steel wire. It is claimed that the system is equal in every way to leather belts, steel bands, chains, etc., and is much cheaper. The wire is thin, and endless.

The Wildlife Service, the Forestry of the Dominion of Canada, has launched a bill which calls for the expenditure of \$16,000,000 for a Canadian year of 11 ships. The present indications are that it will carry 6 protected cruisers and 6 destroyers, to be built in Canada.

A special Board of Fire Control has been named by the Secretary of the Navy, to look into the question of the value of the military mast which has been installed in battleships, and report whether other masts of the same type should be placed on other vessels of the fleet.

Since introducing the "Pay With" cars in Philadelphia the number of accidents to persons has decreased 74 per cent. This is attributed to the arrangement of the closed doors and steps, making it impossible for passengers to get on or off when the cars are moving.

We regret to note the death of Dr. Charles B. Dudley, consulting chemist of the Pennsylvania Railroad and president of the American Society for Testing Materials and of the International Society for Testing Materials. His contribution to the railway world was a most important one.

The total length of the new Manhattan bridge connecting the boroughs of Manhattan and Brooklyn is 6,885 feet. The total cost of the bridge, including the estate, is \$115,855,000. The weight of the cables is 5,500 tons. There is provision for four trolley and four elevated tracks, one 35-foot roadway, and two 11-foot promenades.

During the remainder of the winter season vessels of the Channel Line will sail direct to Flagstaff, omitting the call at Queenstown. Since inaugurating this new port of call more than 5,000 passengers have made use of the facilities which have been provided, and have expressed themselves as being well pleased with the saving of time which is effected by cutting out the trip to Liverpool.

Males are being asked for the seats and frames of the Humber gas valves to be embedded in the masonry of the twin locks at Pedro Miguel, and the upper twin locks and the spillway at Gatun, on the Panama Canal. Each valve is designed to operate in full traveling on two roller train bearings with a gap of ten feet from center to center, balanced to the downstroke of the wall casting. Each valve closes an opening 8 feet wide by 18 feet high.

The delay of passenger trains is often caused by a too slow method of admitting the passengers to the trains when the train is often crowded. Where tickets have to be examined, and passengers admitted one by one, there is always more or less delay. This can be avoided by a second series of gates. The examination of tickets is made at the first gate, which is then opened in ample time prior to the departure of the train. The passengers are then held behind the second gate until the train arrives in its ready to depart, when a number of gates can be thrown open and the passengers can at once proceed to take their trains.

Mr. W. W. C. & H. R. Co. has asked the up-State Public Service Commission to reopen the investigation which had earlier considered the use of alternating low voltage for the transmission of power during certain seasons of the year. The company says that it has equipped its transmission lines with a new type of transformer, which will enable it to transmit power at a lower voltage than the 110,000 volts now used. The company also claims that it will be able to transmit power at a lower voltage than the 110,000 volts now used. The company also claims that it will be able to transmit power at a lower voltage than the 110,000 volts now used.

## ELECTRICITY.

The question of using low-tension metal filament lamps is receiving considerable attention abroad. Transformers are being made for this particular purpose, which are fitted with interrupters, so that they may be used on direct current lines. It has been suggested to fit each lamp with a transformer. The filament of the lamp could be a closed circuit, forming the secondary of the transformer.

A simple method of clarifying the air of a room has recently been suggested. It consists of an electric fan or ventilator, which is operated in a cylinder, and from a reservoir above the fan a liquid is allowed to drop on the fan blades. This is thrown out against the cylinder in a spray, through which the air drawn by the ventilator must pass. This serves to collect the dust from the air. The inventor of this system proposed the use of glycerine or soap, but it has been found that practically as good results can be obtained by the use of water.

A novel method of catching fish was described in a recent issue of the Electrical Review and Western Electrician. A trolley line running between Franklin and Columbus, Ind., skirts the White River for a considerable distance, and it is here discovered that the trolley wire is frequently tangled to furnish current for fishing by electricity. An end of the wire is placed in the water, and the current sends such fish as come within its influence, so that they can be taken out with scoop nets. The trolley company and the Indiana Fish and Game Wardens are trying to break up this method of fishing.

The following estimates of the value of various electrical industries in the country during 1908 has been published in the Electrical World.	
Electrical apparatus	\$275,000,000
Electric railways	476,000,000
Central stations	250,000,000
Telephony	250,000,000
Telegaphy	60,000,000
Isolated plant supply	76,000,000
Miscellaneous	50,000,000
<b>Total</b>	<b>\$1,435,000,000</b>

The value of aluminum for the field coils of railway motors has been noted in Germany. It is found that the aluminum takes up less space than copper, although a larger mass of metal is required, because covering is required. The oxide film on the surface of aluminum sufficient insulation is given, so there is no danger of destroying or weakening this insulation by charring as in the case of the cotton covering when the motor is overheated so that there is less danger of short circuits. The principal advantage, however, is the reduced weight, as the aluminum "cut" weighs but half as much as the copper coils.

A writer in La Revue Electrique describes the experiments of Mikrosch Korbmann to determine the effect of ultraviolet light on liquids. He subjected about half an ounce of water to the rays of a quartz mercury vapor lamp, and after about ten hours gas appeared to be forming. At the end of two hundred hours 240 cubic millimeters (0.04 cubic inch) of gas was produced. The gas proved to be hydrogen, and the water showed that it was charged with oxygen. This experiment explains the presence of oxygenated water in snow and rain. It is proposed to use this method for sterilizing liquids, as oxygenated water is an excellent germicide.

Now that aerial navigation is coming to be considered seriously new problems are arising, such as the question of navigation on starless nights or over fog-bound land, when the aeronaut will be unable to find his bearings. It has been proposed by a German inventor that a network of wireless stations be established over the land, each emitting a signal at a predetermined signal at regular intervals, which would be received by the air craft, and enable the aeronaut to determine his course. The airplanes would not be required to carry transmitting apparatus, as a small receiving apparatus would suffice to enable them to avail themselves of this proposed system, and the weight of the receiving device could easily be borne to a few pounds.

A new method of determining the sag of overhead wires has been suggested by a writer in the Elektrotechnische Zeitschrift. The pendulum principle is used. The wire is not to be stretched, and the number of oscillations per minute is noted (the complete motion back and forth being considered, according to European practice, as made up of two oscillations). Letting  $N$  stand for the number of oscillations per minute, the sag in centimeters is determined by dividing  $447,500$  by  $N^2$ . To find the sag in inches, divide  $17,610$  by  $N^2$ . Of course, this formula would apply to any type of motion, and would not be limited to the sag of wire, but like the pendulum the period of the oscillation is determined only by the vertical distance between the center of gravity and the ends of the wire.

## SCIENCE.

Prof. H. M. Randall of Harvard Observatory has succeeded in obtaining a photograph of Halley's comet which shows a faint slender straight tail. No ray as is known, this is the first photograph to show the tail of the present returning comet.

A new estimate of the earth's age has recently been given by Prof. William Morris Davis of Harvard. For the usually accepted one hundred million years he estimates sixty million, and on the basis of the cliffs in Arizona and Utah where the time taken to deposit the strata can be easily computed.

One objection to glass roofs is that if they are not very steeply inclined, the water of condensation collects on their under surface, and instead of running down the sloping ribs of the glass plates, and being led off, drips upon persons or objects below, which is inconvenient and may be very expensive. Even where the pines or struts are short, the path to the trough is too long. The increase in length and width of the plates now used makes this difficulty of more and more importance each year. One way of getting around it is, however, similar to that employed in forests and parks to prevent washing away of the hillside plates, namely, making inclined grooves toward the sides, only in this case the grooves are of horizontal shape, and form a series of parallel corrugations which catch the water, and prevent it from reaching the plate, they then follow these without much difficulty down the slant to the trough below. This system may be employed either with glass sheets in which wire is embedded, or with plate glass.

We notice in a recent number of the Medical Record a letter from Dr. Robert I. Watkins, New York City, in which he claims the credit of having applied the moving picture in the treatment of the oculomotor. He states that as far back as 1897 he demonstrated the machine to a private audience, among whom was the Editor of the *British Medical Journal*. The machine, known as the "micro-microscope," was described in our issue of July 31st, 1897. Later, microscope moving pictures were exhibited at the Grand Central Palace during the Trained Nurses' and Pure Food Exhibition, the pictures thrown on the screen exhibiting the circulation of the blood in the web of a frog's foot, retifers in stagnant water, an amoeba undergoing typhoid fever germs, and many others. Since that time Dr. Watkins has greatly improved his microscope, and gave a demonstration on June 17th last at Chicago before an audience of five hundred physicians of the National Electric Association. We may venture to point out that Dr. Cushman does not use the ordinary microscope, but the ultra microscope.

The third paper dealing with the results of the Smithsonian African expedition under Col. Theodore Roosevelt has just been issued by the Smithsonian Institution. It describes a new species of *Oryzopsis* to which the specific name of *cristata* is given. This new animal is a small carnivorous mammal closely resembling a fox. It is generally buff in color, and has been found by Mr. Gerrit Miller of the museum staff to differ slightly from *Oryzopsis* in color. This new species further shows, especially in color and in the characteristics of its teeth and skull. The *Oryzopsis* is peculiar to Africa, and is not represented in the United States, but resembles in color the swift or kit fox of the western plains. The skull of this new form closely resembles that of the gray fox of our native fauna. This announcement is of special interest for the Smithsonian Institution, as it is the first of its kind expected from this region in Africa as the territory up to this time explored by the Smithsonian African expedition has been pretty thoroughly examined by British naturalists.

The water bottle for getting water for analysis from selected depths in the sea is a cylinder of brass. German alloy, or other metal which resists the corrosion of sea water, generally about two inches in diameter and twelve or fourteen inches long, with upward-opening valves at the top and bottom, connected together on a central stem. Lugs are cast on the side of the cylinder for conveniently securing it at any point along the length of the line by which it is lowered into the water. During the lowering of the line the valves of the bottle are kept unopened by the passage of the water through the cylinder during its descent, but, that the water is not to be drawn out, and the number of oscillations per minute is noted (the complete motion back and forth being considered, according to European practice, as made up of two oscillations). Letting  $N$  stand for the number of oscillations per minute, the sag in centimeters is determined by dividing  $447,500$  by  $N^2$ . To find the sag in inches, divide  $17,610$  by  $N^2$ . Of course, this formula would apply to any type of motion, and would not be limited to the sag of wire, but like the pendulum the period of the oscillation is determined only by the vertical distance between the center of gravity and the ends of the wire.

# THE SCHERL GYROSCOPIC MONORAIL CAR

## THE PRINCIPLE OF ITS OPERATION

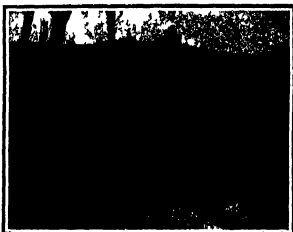
Within the past few months Mr Brennan has exhibited at London a car which runs upon a single rail and is prevented from falling over to either side by the rotation of two gyroscopes carried on the car. At about the same time Mr Scherl a German capitalist exhibited in Berlin a similar car. His cars were of sufficient size to accommodate passengers both car-

tions per minute. We are all familiar with the gyroscope of the toy shop or the lecture room—the first mounted rotatably in one the second in two concentric rings with the axes of the rings at right angles to each other and the flywheel axis in each case capable of universal angular motion. In the accompanying engraving we show a gyroscope mounted as in the Scherl car. The flywheel is carried on a vertical axis which is mounted in a gimbal ring. This ring swings on a horizontal axis in bearings carried on two vertical posts mounted on a board which, for the present purpose we will consider to represent the deck of the car. If we change the plane of rotation of the flywheel by pressing down on one side and tilting it over toward B two things will happen. The board will resist the downward pressure on that side and tend to rise and the flywheel will be suddenly tilted over as shown in the direction D in a plane at right angles to the plane in which we have depressed the board.

This tilting of the axis is known as its precession. If now we endeavor to increase the precession by pressing down upon the already tilted axis the latter will resist very strongly and there will be developed at the same time a large additional resistance to our depression of the side B of the board. It is in this advancement of the precession as Brennan calls it though the precession because of the vigorous resistance of the flywheel axis is not actually advanced that the secret of the successful gyroscope car lies as will be evident from the following description of the construction and operation of the Scherl car.

Referring to the engraving showing a longitudinal section it will be seen that the car which is 4 feet wide by 18 feet long is carried on two wheels

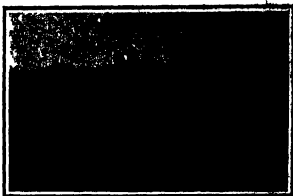
completely inclose both motors and flywheels and the gyroscopes run in a perfect vacuum—this to avoid the slight friction of the air which would retard the speed. The casings are mounted on transverse axes, pivoted in the frame of the car and they are therefore free to rock in a fore-and-aft direction. The bearings between the motor and the casing is so small that the heat of the motors can jump the insulating gap and radiate away freely and "heating up is thereby avoided. The speed of rotation of the 115-pound flywheels as we have stated above, is 2,000 per minute.



The gyroscope car inclines automatically to the inside of a curve

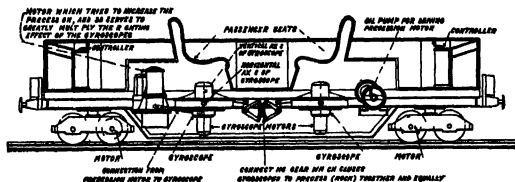
ried their loads successfully and in each case the gyroscopes maintained the car in a state of equilibrium—and they did this even when all its load was placed on one side of the car or when the car was running around a curve.

Apparently the inventors worked quite independently of each other and it is a remarkable fact that in the essential elements for the control of the gyroscopic mechanism they should have produced machines so broadly identical. The German car which is now being exhibited in this city represents the joint labor of Mr. Isidor Pöschel the inventor who worked out



With three men on one side, car tilts to opposite side, restoring equilibrium

The rocking of the gyroscopes is in opposite directions—if the car is tilted to one side they rock toward each other and vice versa, and to insure simultaneous and equal movement they are connected together by bell crank levers and two toothed quadrants as shown in the drawing. In front of the gyroscopes is an electrically driven oil pump for generating hydraulic pressure to drive a precession motor which is carried at the rear of the gyroscopes. The precession motor consists of a cylinder and piston controlled by suitable valves. These valves are themselves operated by the rocking movements of the gyroscopes and the move-



Longitudinal section through Scherl monorail car

the theory and data for the design. Mr Emil Paalke who designed and constructed the car and Mr Scherl the owner of the patents.

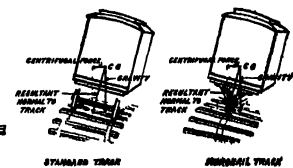
**THE GYROSCOPE.**—The simple gyroscope consists of a flywheel so mounted upon a system of bearings that its axis may be tilted in any direction. The peculiar and most interesting behavior of the gyroscope is due to the fact that when a flywheel is mounted in rotation in a given plane it resists any effort to change its plane of rotation by tilting the axis on which it is turning. The tendency of the flywheel to maintain its plane of rotation and its resistance to any force tend-

ing to swirl the car around centrally below the longitudinal axis of the car. It is driven by two 5 horse power motors one on each truck. At each end is a controller and a box containing various operating switches. In the center are two seats accommodating four passengers.

Mounted in the car frame underneath the seats are two gyroscopes one of which rotates clockwise the other anti-clockwise. The flywheels rotate normally in a horizontal plane on vertical axes. On the lower end of each axis is mounted an electrically driven motor. The axes are journaled in strong steel airtight casings which

ments of the piston are caused through suitable mechanical connections to exert a tilting pull or push, as the case may be against the gyroscopes.

The functioning of this most ingenious mechanism is as follows: When the car tips or tends to tip to one side there is an immediate resistance tending to right the car accompanied by a precession (tilting) of the gyroscopes. This natural precession actuates the valves of the precession motor which in turn tilts or attempts to tilt the gyroscopes still further on its transverse axis and to increase the precession. The gyroscope however strongly resists and there is a re-



Old and new method of rounding curves.



If the table (representing platform of car) be tilted transversely the gyroscope flywheel will tilt fore or aft according to the direction of its rotation, and thus will be developed a strong resistance to the movement of the table. (The time and movement is related to the principle.)

View showing gyroscopic mechanism.

SEE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, 1904.

acting reaction transversely to the car tending to right the latter so that the tilting effect due to the "natural" precession is exactly compensated by the "mechanical" precession attempted by the motor. The motor thus acts as a counter to the natural precession and maintains the car in a perfectly balanced position.

of all the forces passing through the single rail on which the car runs.

One of our illustrations shows the Robert car with three people standing on the side sills, and it will be noticed that instead of the car inclining toward the loaded side, it actually inclines away from it. This, however, is in agreement with the facts observed in our consideration of the gyroscopes, where the pressure on one side was immediately resisted by a counteracting force, causing that side of the gyroscopes to rise in the unbalanced condition of the car the gyroscopes were holding it in a state of equilibrium with the center of gravity vertical above the rail. When the three people stepped upon the car the center of gravity moved over correspondingly until it was several inches outside of the rail causing the car to lean to that side. Immediately the gyroscopes began to pull the car over to the left until the center of gravity of the car and the three people was directly above the rail and equilibrium was restored. So sensitive and intelligent, if we may use the term is the relation ship between the gyroscopes and its precession motion that they begin to act immediately upon the disturbance of equilibrium, they impart just the right amount of corrective force; and they become quiescent the moment equilibrium is restored.

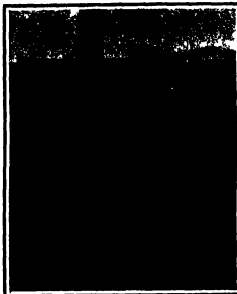
Another of our photographic views shows the striking phenomenon of a car running around a curve upon a single rail and inclining inwardly to the proper degree to maintain its equilibrium. To practical railroad men this is certainly the most attractive feature of the invention for it would mean the elimination of all the different contradictory and expensive problems connected with the super-elevation of the outside rail on the present twinned tracks. It is a fact that the car is so intelligent (we cannot help using the term) that whether the curve be easy or sharp and whether the car rounds it at ten or seventy-five miles an hour it will lean inwardly with mathematical certainty to the exact amount required by its speed and the sharpness of the curve.

In the standard system of track the component of centrifugal force tending to hurl the car over to the outside of the curve or cause it to jump the track is equalized by elevating the outside rail until the resultant of gravity and centrifugal force falls normally to the track. This condition can only hold true on a given curve for a certain speed. Below that speed a train will grind on the lower rail above it will crowd against the outer rail. Not so with the gyroscopic car. As soon as it enters a curve the pull of centrifugal force is resisted and the gyroscopes draw the car over to the inside of the rail until the resultant of all the forces acting upon it passes through the rail. The gyroscopic car as above described is one of the most brilliant inventions of this or any age. But is it practical and will it pay? A discussion of this question will be found in our editorial columns.

#### THE DEATH OF LEON DELAGRANGE

After making a wonderful new record of 154 miles in 2 hours and 24 minutes on December 30th with a Blériot monoplane Leon Delagrange who with Henry Farman was the first aviator to make flights with the crude Voisin biplane in France in the spring of 1907 met his death by a fall with the same monoplane on January 4th while flying at Bordeaux. Our photographs show M. Blériot with Delagrange standing at his left and Le Blanc another daring pilot of the Blériot machine at his right. Behind the three men stands the machine which is like that Blériot used in crossing the Channel and which Delagrange used on the day of the accident. A rather strong wind was blowing and according to cable reports when the machine headed into the wind the right wing suddenly broke and the monoplane fell to the ground.

This is the first accident which has occurred owing to the collapse of an aeroplane when in the air. We understand, however, that some time ago a similar accident happened to Latham, but without disastrous results. One wing of his Antoinette monoplane broke off and stood almost at right angles to the other wing yet by leaning to one side and varying the remaining wing, Latham was able to guide his machine down in circles and bring it safely to the ground. After repairing the wing he attached it in such a



LE BLANC, BLÉRIOT, DELAGRANGE  
BLÉRIOT AND HIS TWO PILOTS IN FRONT OF HIS NO 11 TYPE MONOPLANE

way that when he was up in the air he could pull a cord and cause the wing to break off as before. He did this and came down a second time with the wing broken simply to demonstrate that a broken wing did not necessarily mean disaster. In the Antoinette machine the wings are secured separately to a mast so that the breaking of one does not affect the other. In the Blériot monoplane the wings are connected together over a tripod, the result being that if one breaks the other collapses and the machine is sure to be dashed to the ground.

The death of Delagrange will put a damper upon the ardor of some enthusiasts for a time but it was due to one of those unfortunate accidents which are always liable to occur in the development of a new art. His name will go down to history as one of the martyrs of aerial navigation. He is the fourth aviator to be killed within the past four months the others being Laferrière (who plunged to earth in his Wright machine) Capt. Yerber (who struck the ground when making a turn in his Voisin) and the Spanish tailor Fernandez (whose small biplane resembling the Curtiss broke while he was making one of his first flights on December 4th last). All four fatal accidents occurred in France.

#### A NEW ENGLISH TRIPLANE

One of our illustrations shows the new triplane of Mr. A. V. Roe. Mr. Roe is one of the most persistent English experimenters. He has been working a long time and has finally developed a successful machine. His triplane is really a Langley type machine in triplane shape since it has three superposed surfaces forming a tail and attached like the forward planes to a triangular body. The motor is mounted in the body at the front end of the machine and drives a three

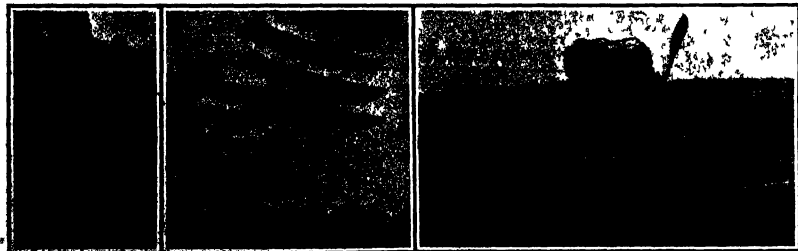
bladed propeller mounted upon its crankshaft. The aviator sits in the body about half way between the main planes and the following plane or tail. The machine is mounted upon two wheels at the front and a skid at the rear. It is 23 feet long and the planes have a spread of 30 feet and 120 square feet of supporting surface. They are set at an angle of five degrees. The forward planes are 30 feet by 3 feet 7 inches while the rear planes are 10 feet by 3 feet 7 inches in size. The total weight of the machine originally with a 10 horse-power tap motor was but 400 pounds. A larger motor of 30 horse-power has been fitted. The weight has been considerably increased. The body is made of deal wood. It is covered with cotton oil paper backed with canvas. The machine is steered and down by changing the inclination of the main planes which are pivoted so they can be turned. There is a vertical rudder at the rear. The machine is steered by working the rudder and at the same time twisting the rear edge of the main planes.

Mr. Roe has done most of his experimenting at Wembley Park and recently the grounds have been enlarged there so as to give him more room. He has made a considerable number of short flights in a straight line and his machine is remarkable for its low power light weight and small speed.

#### AVIATORS COSTUMES AND A MACHINE FOR TEACHING AVIATION.

Two of the photographs reproduced on this page give a very good idea of the costumes worn by French aviators and of the dress to be adopted in France by the lady operators or aviatrices. The costumes used by the men consist of overalls and jumper and a light fitting skull cap completely covering the head. The costume being used by the lady operators consists of a loose blouse and long bloomers extending to the tops of the shoes. A skull cap similar to that used by the men is also worn. At the present time but two ladies have made flights or themselves in aeroplanes in France. These are the Baroness de la Roche who operates a Voisin biplane and who recently met with an accident by running into a tree and Miss Harrington who is the first woman in the world to have flown a monoplane. She has made several successful flights with a Blériot machine. A number of other ladies are learning however and several aviation clubs have been formed for women. One of the most recently organized of these was formed at Los Angeles (Cal).

Another interesting picture at the bottom of this page shows a novel training machine for instructing aviators to a monoplane of the Bantou Dumont type. This machine consists of a substantial triangular body mounted upon three wheels and terminating in a tall having movable vertical and horizontal surfaces by which the machine is steered to right and left when running along on the ground or by which the tail is made to rise a short distance in the air. The two bottom members of the triangular frame are extended forward and met above a small wheel five or six feet ahead of the main wheels so that the machine sits or forward when the tail rises the front wheel keeps it from tilting too far. A four-cylinder water-cooled motor of 40 horse-power is mounted upon a U-shaped frame and carries a propeller in front on its crank shaft. The would be aviator sits in a small seat below the motor with the control levers conveniently at hand. The machine is fitted with large wire wheels fitted with large diameter pneumatic tires. With this machine a beginner can travel at very fast speed over the ground and accustom himself to the steering side ways and up and down of a monoplane. The machine should serve a useful purpose in training aviators who intend to fly this type of a machine.



Blériot, Delagrange and Farman

Blériot's machine in flight.

Machine for familiarizing beginners with an aeroplane.

A NEW ENGLISH TRIPLANE AND A TRAINER MACHINE FOR TEACHING NEW AVIATORS.

## A POWER-DRIVEN SAW.

The continuously running flexible saw is by no means a novelty to our readers. Its leading principle is embodied in the hand saw saw in common use. Although effective for sawing lumber bands saws are incapable of cross-cut sawing on large trees in the forest because the band necessarily runs in two planes. For the purpose of overcoming this objection Mr. R. L. Muir has perfected a new style of endless cross-cut saw which is flexible in a single plane of motion and which is carried in a frame which with the side of the saw the band saws it in contact through the log the frame being sufficiently stiff and rigid to keep the saw in perfect line.

The frame in question is made of this steel with grooved edges. Projecting bristles and bolts are bolted to the ends. In the brackets guide wheels 3 and 4 with grooved peripheries are journaled. The bracket 5 has a handle by which the operator controls the saw. An endless chain composed of saw links 4 is mounted on the guide wheels and runs on the straight edges of the frame. The guide wheels on the frame serve to keep the chain straight during operation. This frame and the toothed chain constitute an end less saw which runs continuously and which makes a single saw cut in the plane of its motion. The saw moreover is adapted to all kinds and styles of sawing for which either circular or rectangular saws are mechanically driven or operating saws can be used and for which hand saws are ordinarily employed the two handled cross cut saw being a familiar example.

The chain saw is driven by a gasoline or electric motor the inner guide wheel being geared up with the motor shaft as indicated in our front page illustration. The motor is carried on a sled which is moved along on ways whenever a new cut is to be made.

Mr. Muir has carried on extensive trials with the saw in the vast redwood belts of Medocine and Humboldt Counties in California, with remarkable success. The most important advantage of his construction is that of the speed. One of his large saws is as a rule will cut through a tree having a diameter of some five to seven feet in less than ten minutes. By the old slow hand saw work would consume an hour and a half with two men winding the saw. One of the machine saws will accomplish as much as from 25 to 30 expert axmen a wonderful saving in time and cost. The machine saws are only two or three men are needed to operate a machine. The saws can be run horizontally vertically or on an incline. Trees can be sawed within a few feet of the ground. The machine saws are not affected by stump waste. In felling trees of immense size by the slow chopping methods hundreds of feet of valuable timber are lost by chippage because it often necessary to cut the tree at right angles above the level of the stump. The mechanical saw described avoids much of this waste.

## AN ELECTRIC PERFORATING PEE.

BY THE SAME AUTHOR. REPORT OF THE NEW SCIENTIFIC JOURNAL.

Though various efforts have been made from time to time to evolve an electrical system of securing an indecipherable writing, a code which is complete proof against both forgery and fraud such devices have proved commercially impracticable. A Parisian inventor however, Dr. Dinebach P. Chaffai, has evolved a simple apparatus which is very efficient. It is called the antitrope pen which as its name implies is to render forgery impossible. The writing is done by means of a series of perforations burned in the paper. The apparatus comprises a small box with a sloping lid measuring about 10 inches long by 5 inches wide. The whole of the electrical equipment is carried within the box or desk the lid of which is glass and carries at its upper end a sheet of aluminum. The pen itself is of the ordinary styligraphic type.

The requisite current is drawn from a small 4 ampere storage battery as shown at A in one of the illustrations. The battery is connected up in the usual manner to an induction coil B to which is fitted a small high-speed trembler capable of adjustment by a thumb-screw on the outside of the desk. Between the secondary terminals of the coil a small cylindrical condenser C is placed in order to increase the intensity and fineness of the spark.

In an electric system of writing care must be taken to prevent the inside of such letters as o, d, r, and so forth from dropping out which would result if the outline were continuous. This possibility is obviated by means of the trembler which makes the current rapidly intermittent. At the same time however such rapidly succeeding waves of electrical energy rising up to 10,000 volts instantly followed by a drop to zero, impose a severe strain upon the induction coil,

and will in time seriously affect it. To guard against such a result the inventor has introduced a novel device which may be best described as a motor speed to the coil. This is a highly exhausted vacuum tube D which is also placed between the secondary terminals and which is in parallel with the pen B. This electric bulb or vacuum tube acts as a ballast load upon the coil, and superintends which may be offered to the passage of the electric current through the pen is taken up thereby causing it to glow brilliantly. At the same time it also acts as a galvanometer as before the operator simply touches the pen ends against the desk, and the resultant glow in the vacuum

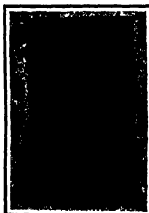
*Dimanche 15  
"Antitrope"  
Nov. 15 - 1908*

Specimen of writing with the electric pen.

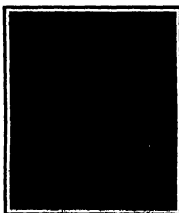
tube indicates that the apparatus is working effectively. The pen is about the same length as the ordinary fountain pen and its barrel contains a mercury bulb. The connection with the coil is effected by a short length of flexible wire carried on a spring barrel. By means of the mercury bulb contained in the barrel the primary circuit is never closed until the pen is held in the normal writing position. Even then the current cannot flow to the point of the pen because the cone-shaped extremity carrying the metallic writing point is separated from the barrel connection by means of the spring piston. It is only when the pen point is pressed upon the paper, wherein the metallic extremity is pushed inward against the mercury that the current can flow to the pen point.

To use the pen the sheet of paper is laid upon the aluminum pad which on its under side is connected to the secondary terminal of the induction coil by means of a fat spring. When the point is pressed hard against the paper, and the electric current completed the resultant spark burns its way directly through the paper leaving behind a distinct perforation. The size of the hole thus produced can be varied as desired from a large coarse perforation to a small almost invisible pin prick by the adjustment of a rheostat the knob of which projects from the left hand side of the desk.

With the metallic point only the perforated outline of the writing is produced but it may be desired to secure a legible distinct surface inscription as well. In this case the metallic point is replaced by a small



The "dash" pen, showing the coil and accessories.



The inventor using the perforating pen.

## AN ELECTRIC PERFORATING PEE.

length of graphite—that taken from an ordinary lead pencil acts excellently. Then in writing one secures a visible surface record and when held up to the light a perforated record may also be seen. In order to obviate the necessity of holding the paper to the light to see if the perforation is being efficiently effected, there is a small metallic slant lamp and reflector fixed inside the desk and by placing a button on the left hand side the writer can simultaneously by examining the writing in the light transmitted through the glass desk lid.

By this method of writing it is impossible to produce two signatures exactly alike, even if written by the

same person. The pen is adapted to write on all kinds of paper and is in fact the most perfect of all writing instruments. It is so constructed that it is completely impervious to water and is in fact a perfect waterproof pen. It is also adapted to write on all kinds of paper, prepared paper, including translucent paper, and these the electric ink can write. The result is that the operator cannot even produce an exact duplicate of his own handwriting on each and in perfect duplicate. This possibility is a distinct advantage when it is required to sign a number of sheets of a document, a bond and its duplicate, a will and its copy, for instance. The pen is so constructed that the pen is simply superimposed and the top sheet viewed upon. The current will burn its way through the whole mass of papers so that the signature is written simultaneously on each and in perfect duplicate. Consequently it is absolutely impossible fraudulently to withdraw one sheet and insert another with a signature, for it is only a matter of counting the number of dots or perforations made in the signature on each sheet, and that which differs from the rest is obviously spurious. As many as eight sheets can be perforated by the pen at a time.

## The Payroll of the Navy.

To provide for the salaries and cost of the officers and enlisted men of the navy during the fiscal year of 1911 it is going to cost the Navy \$25,797,477. Of this amount over \$5,000,000 will be spent to buy food for the 44,000 enlisted men. The Navy Department figures the total cost of the navy for the year to feed each man, or just \$2 a month. The payroll of the enlisted men in the navy during 1911 will aggregate nearly \$18,000,000. This sum will take care of 41,738 in the general service, 154 men in the Insular force and 1,154 prisoners under sentence by court martial.

About one-fourth of the men serving in the navy to-day have reenlisted. Of the 43,232 allowed by law 11,891 men are estimated as under reenlistment and entitled to participate in the allowances for reenlistment and continuous service. These figures do not take into consideration the 2,000 or more apprentices. Based on the men in the service in June last the average pay of the enlisted men was \$35.79 a month.

The perquisites allowed officers in the navy will aggregate nearly three-quarters of a million dollars in 1911. Of this amount \$744,440 will be spent in providing heat and light. The heaviest cost in the allowance granted the naval officers in addition to their pay is in the matter of housing. The officers are not accommodated in buildings or houses maintained by the government. The commutation of quarters will aggregate \$438,780 while the commutation of rations figured at 30 cents a day will reach a total of \$165,458.

## An Electric Plant Operated by an Air Turbine.

Near Hamburg Germany is a small electric establishment concerning which the following interesting details have been published. The installation comprises 40 incandescent lamps and five electric motors, which drive a threshing machine, a hay cutter, a cream separator and two pumps. The total capacity is 40 kilowatts. The Harroche turbine has a wheel 40 feet in diameter mounted on top of a steel tower about 100 feet high. The apparatus begins to work as soon as the wind attains a velocity of 10 or 12 feet per second. In this region a work of this force can be counted on for 10 hours a day on the average. With a wind of 30 feet per second the power developed is 10 horse-power or 23 kilowatts. The installation also includes storage batteries and a gasoline motor for use in light. The turbine operates so satisfactorily that it was unnecessary to use the gasoline motor during a period of 80 consecutive days. The storage battery of 60 elements, has a total capacity of 400 ampere hours, and furnishes a current of 100 amperes for three hours. The first cost of the establishment, including the gasoline motor, was about \$4,000, while the plant itself is estimated at \$1,000. It was operated entirely by a gasoline motor, cost only \$5,000. On the other hand, the actual cost of operation of the electric plant is only \$1,100, while that of the old plant was \$1,700.

The work of substituting the electric use of the New York Central Railroad on far as North Wales Station is proceeding quite rapidly. It is estimated that by the first day of next year it will be in full operation. The temporary terminal at North Wales Station, where the electric locomotives are now being used, will be replaced by a permanent one. The New York Central will be equipped with twenty electric locomotives, and the New York Central will be equipped with twenty electric locomotives, and the New York Central will be equipped with twenty electric locomotives.





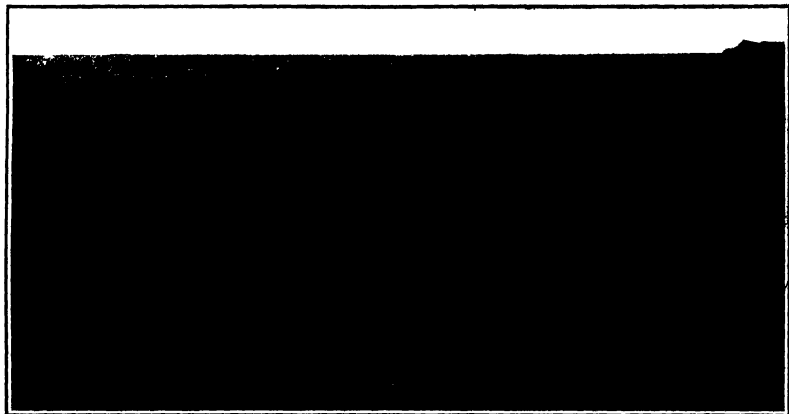
# THE NEW NAVAL HARBOR AT DOVER

BY THE ENGLISH CORRESPONDENT OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

The harbor facilities of the British Admiralty have been greatly extended by the recent completion of the new and extensive works at Dover at a cost of some \$700,000. Dover is a point of considerable strategic

full fury of which appears to be concentrated or at any rate is experienced there. There was no convenient headland or other natural barriers of which advantage could be taken so that to convert the port

area of 610 acres, by the construction of a protection arm on the eastern side of the slight bay projecting 2,848 feet into the sea the reclamation of 1,900 feet of foreshore at the base of the cliffs the extension of the



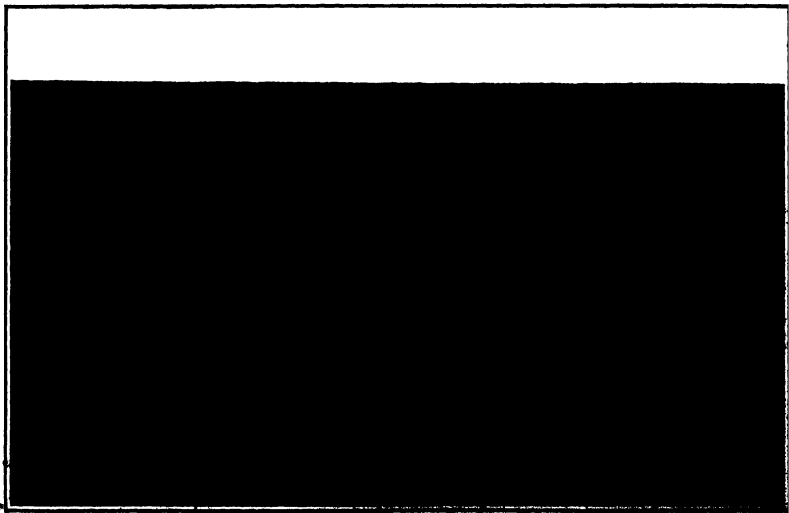
General view of the harbor from the east

cal importance and the necessity of some refuge for war vessels in its vicinity was advocated some hundred years ago. Unfortunately however its geographical situation is such that it is exposed to all seas between extreme east and extreme west the

into a harbor of refuge easily accessible in all weathers and which would be completely safe necessitated elaborate development works.

It was in 1896 that the government decided to convert the port into a national harbor with a low water

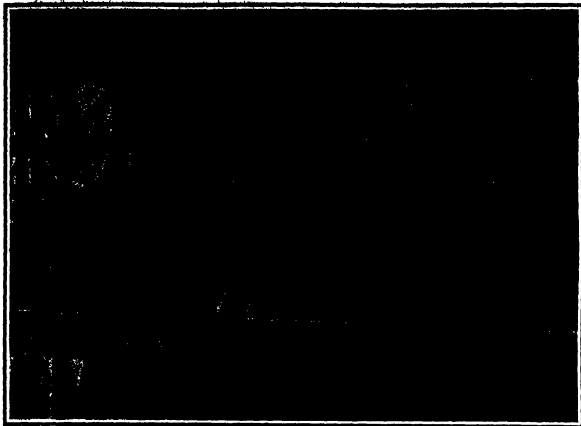
existing Admiralty pier used by the vessels engaged in the cross channel traffic with France and an island breakwater between the two extremities of the land arms 4,214 feet in length. The general design of the works may be gathered from the accompanying plan.



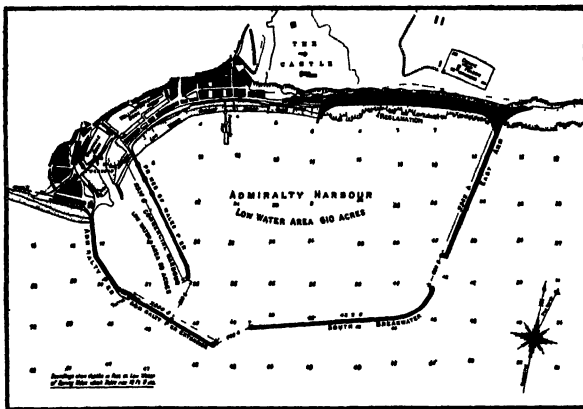
Reclaimed area in foreground of 22 acres where blocks were prepared and shipped and track to harbor, at present being

THE NEW NAVAL HARBOR AT DOVER

in which the new construction is to be placed by the means indicated in full black. It will then be seen that an aggregate length of 11,154 feet or over two miles of break water has been constructed. As to the anchorage is secured by a gap between the west end extremity of the sea arm and the Admiralty pier 140 feet in width and on the eastern side by another gap 450 feet in width. By this means the harbor can be entered in any weather (tidal condition is provided and alling up within the inclosed area prevented. The arrangements provide for a water depth at the entrance ranging from 40 to 45 feet at low spring tides and as these tides rise nearly 10 feet it will be seen that at high spring tides the water depth is about 50 feet. Within the harbor itself a water depth at low tide up to 40 feet is available thus meeting the requirements of the largest war vessels. The contract for the undertaking was placed in 1887 with Messrs S Pearson & Sons Ltd of London to whose courtesy we are indebted for the accompanying illustrations. The surveys showed that the sea bed consisted of chalk, chalk marl and slate so that a solid foundation could be secured for the masonry work. The work is car-

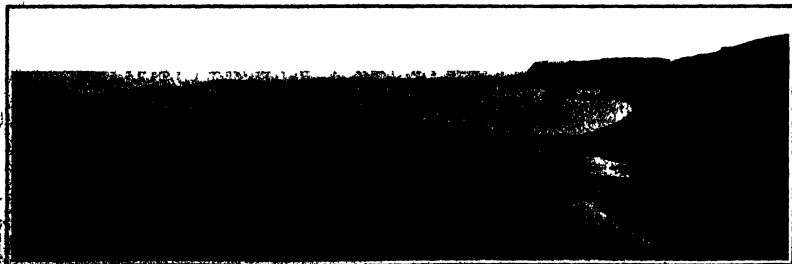


At extreme left, grab for clearing foundations at right, diving bell ready to descend. At rear cranes for setting blocks below tide water level. Staging at the pierhead works.



Plan of the Dover harbor works. New structure shown in full black.

ried out in solid masonry the blocks ranging from 30 to 40 tons in weight and composed of 6 to 1 concrete. A large block making yard was established as soon as possible upon the area reclaimed from the sea and here two 40-ton gantry cranes for handling the blocks were erected. The material for the concrete was drawn from suitable points a few miles distant and a funicular railway was built to the top of the cliff for bringing the material down to the electrically operated Messent concrete mixers which while the mixing operation was in progress traveled along an elevated track above the mounds and dumped their contents where and as required. In all 250,000 tons of Portland cement was consumed in the preparation of 1,300,000 cubic yards of concrete. Actual construction was carried out from elaborate heavy timber staging the piles of which in some cases exceeded 100 feet in length. This staging was carried to a height of 44½ feet above low water and the deck was provided with tracks for the manipulation of the various constructional appliances. These latter comprised Goliath cranes ranging from 40 to 60 tons capacity and with a radius of 160 feet. Four of these cranes were used simultaneously on the stag-



Complete view of Dover Bay and Harbor. NEW ROYAL HARBOUR AT DOVER.



## CURIOSITIES OF SCIENCE AND INVENTION

## NEW METHOD OF CARRYING AN UNCONSCIOUS PERSON

A new method of carrying an unconscious person, who may be a comatose, injured, or otherwise incapacitated is being used by the New York Fire Department. Ordinarily the unconscious man is turned face downward and then lifted up on his knees after which he is placed across the fireman's shoulder. The new method consists of throwing the burden across the back over both shoulders, instead of one as heretofore. The right thigh and right upper arm of the man that is being carried are gripped between the fireman's arms and body close to the armpits. This leaves the fireman's forearms and both legs free. Formerly the fireman had the use of but one hand and arm, making it a difficult matter to carry a victim down a scaling ladder. With the new method the weight of the burden is supported in a position where a maximum load can be carried with minimum exertion. The one that is rescued is firmly locked on the fireman's shoulders by the powerful muscles of the shoulders and upper arms. With both forearms and hands free the fireman can carry a burden down a vertical ladder without danger of falling and can even slide down the ladder after a little practice. To Dr. Charles H. Duane, whose work at one of the emergency hospitals of this city has brought him into contact with firemen and others injured at fires the New York Fire Department

"How long did it take you to make them?" I inquired.

"Time." Oh don't mention it. I didn't dare keep any record. —Edward F. Bigelow.

## A VACUUM CLEANER FOR CLEANING STREETS.

The war against dust which is now so successfully waged in houses by means of vacuum cleaning machines should undoubtedly be extended to include street cleaning. It is just as important to keep the dust down when sweeping streets and more so because street dust is always heavily laden with disease germs which are a constant menace to passersby and particularly to the street sweepers. A machine has just been perfected which works somewhat on the principle of the smaller household vacuum cleaners. The dirt and refuse of the surface over which the machine travels is gathered by rotating brushes and then by pneumatic power is sucked or lifted into conduits where the heavier parts of the refuse are extracted and deposited in closed receptacles. The fine dust which has been impossible for mechanical sweepers as heretofore devised to dispose of is carried onward in closed conduits and is fed down so that it may be taken off in the form of silt.

The suction mechanism is operated by the engine

## MOTOR AMBULANCE FOR DOGS.

A curious motor ambulance for dogs is to be seen in the west end of London. This ambulance is the property of the Animals Hospital and is used for conveying dogs to and fro. It resembles a Noah's



## MOTOR AMBULANCE FOR DOGS.

Ark in shape and is drawn by a horse-power motor cycle to which it is attached by means of an ingenious coupling device which prevents the ambulance overturning when traveling around corners. The ambulance is mounted on easy springs, is fitted with pneumatic tires and is well padded inside in order to minimize vibration. Being motor drawn it can do long journeys expeditiously and ailing animals can be conveyed to the hospital and treated without delay.

## A NOVEL BRIDGE CONSTRUCTION.

An emergency bridge construction which appears to have considerable merit, was recently exhibited before the British War Ministry. It comprises only three different pieces illustrated at A, B, and C in the accompanying sketch. The part A is the compressional member and is the only part which would have to be carried in stock. Parts B and C are chopped out of timber or wrought iron in the vicinity while the rods O could be for use on the site of rope or preferably wire. The construction of the bridge will be understood by referring to the members shown in dotted lines at the right hand end of the bridge. A member which runs through the last compressional members of the bridge serves as a pivot for two more compressional members that are carried by fulcrum of the beam. When the two compressional members are swung around as indicated by the arrows the tie rod is drawn taut and serves to take its share of the load. In building up a bridge of this sort the tie rod could be supported on a boat or trestle while the engineers were adding the successive pairs of members to the shore end of the bridge until a sufficient span was produced to reach across the stream. The construction was designed particularly



CARRYING THE MAN DOWN A SCALING LADDER.

LIFTING THE MAN ONTO THE BACK AND SHOULDERS.

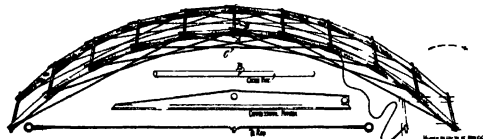
ment is indebted for this new and practical method of carrying an unconscious person.

## EXPERT CHAIN WHITTLING.

For several years I have been collecting specimens of expert jackknife whittling. Among those who have contributed specimens is Mr. George W. Lockwood, Long Ridge, Conn. About two years ago he supplied some specimens of chain whittling from a broom stick that were far above the ordinary. For a time I regarded them as the best in existence. A little later I obtained some triple chains from a Philadelphia expert that slightly excelled those by Mr. Lockwood, whose attention was called to the Philadelphia work. Mr. Lockwood determined to give him one better and the results were the two chains and ornaments shown herewith. These are by far better than any others I have been able to obtain. Each chain is from a piece of wood of broomstick shape, the cutting without break and done with an ordinary jackknife. The "hollowed" bourgeois sections are especially light and actually done. The finer pieces turn easily in sets or sections. As will be readily seen the links are symmetrically shaped and well finished.

with which he propels the machine is a power tie chain at being utilized in the process of separating and refining the dust.

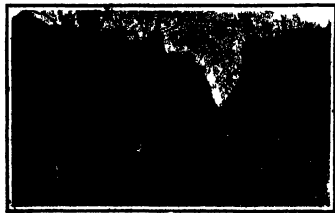
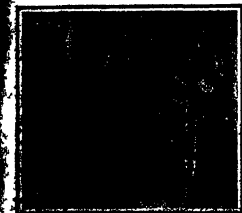
By actual tests recently made under the same ad



NOVEL TEMPORARY BRIDGE CONSTRUCTION.

verse conditions this sweeper has shown its ability to clean in an hour as much street as it is as the old fashioned horse-drawn sweeper will sweep or brush in six hours.

for as in reinforcing it on a new arch. When used in this way the compressional bars could be placed at the outside and after the concrete had set they could be removed for use in building the next arch.



VACUUM CLEANER FOR CLEANING STREETS.

## RECENTLY PATENTED INVENTIONS

**FORWARDERS TO ATTORNEYS**  
**KNUTTE-PARTNER AND COLLIER**  
 BUTTON—7 Parkways, Portland, Me.  
 The object of the invention is to provide a combined necktie retainer and collar button, which can be easily inserted in and removed from a stiff starched collar, and which, in the latter position, effectively secures the tie fastener. The retainer and button are preferably made of a single flat piece of metal, although it may be produced by other means.

## OF INTEREST TO FARMERS.

**DALING PRIMER—J. W. ROSE, Jr., Lancaster, Pa.**  
 This is a powerful and simple press for tobacco and the material. It is easily manipulated by one operator and the material to be compressed can be rapidly and easily formed into compact balls which permit being towed in the position desired to facilitate the holding of the balls, and there are special locking means for holding the folding side in position.

**WIRE STITCHER—J. R. Davis and F. R. Adams, Water Neb.**  
 This stitcher is arranged to permit properly stretching wire between posts or around a corner post, and to hold the stretched wire until it is fastened in place, and without danger of stretching any slack between the post and stitcher, and to allow of readily splicing additional wire with out the stitcher being in the way of the operator making the splice.

**REVOLVING TOOTH CUTLITATOR—G. G. Barrows, Upjohn Ave.**  
 This cutlitor is of the type that presents a crown to which the spring teeth or how are attached. By adjusting the position of these bars the arrangement of the teeth can be readily desired. The adjusting mechanism will insure that the bars will hold themselves perfectly rigid in their different adjusted positions.

## OF GENERAL INTEREST.

**COALBARKET—H. G. Mitchell, New York, N. Y.**  
 The aim of this improvement is to produce a basket especially adapted to be formed of cloth, canvas or other material, and which is provided with a reinforcing frame giving the finished basket strength and durability for handling and use. The project below the bottom of the frame to receive the principal part of the wear across the neck or floor.

**ELECTRIC FURNACE FOR THE CONTINUOUS EXTRACTION OF BING FROM ITS OILS—R. P. Core and B. P. Parnes, 240 Bowdoin, New France.**  
 The object in this improvement is to produce a furnace in which a continuous manner for extracting benzene therefrom, and providing a means of collecting the benzene without it being necessary to previously treat them in order to insure the quality of the oil.

**STOPPING FOR BOTTLES INTENDED TO CONTAIN VOLATILE LIQUIDS—Benjamin, 410 Broadway, New York, N. Y.**  
 This device enables a capillary action of large diameter and the capillary orifice employed for delivering other liquids in medical practice to be stoppered. It may be utilized for other liquids or other volatile products either mixed or not with medicinal substances or with perfumery essences.

**AREA FINDING APPARATUS—Arthur C. Farnham, Norfolk, Va.**  
 The invention comprises a flat steel plate that is magnetized and a number of iron balls. The drawing upon which the area is outlined is placed over the plate. The area outlined is then filled with the iron balls. The magnetized plate causes them to cling to the plate and to each other. The balls are then taken out and placed in a measuring jar. The volume of square inches occupied by the balls is ascertained.

**STRAIGHTENING J. A. Blackmore, Seattle, Wash.**  
 The object of this invention is to present a shade which will effectively prevent light rays from reaching the eye, and it is especially adapted for use by people desiring to sleep in the daytime. In order to obviate the necessity of disturbing the room.

**GASTROSCOPE M. FERNANDEZ, Berlin, Germany.**  
 This gastroscope comprises a horizontal and a vertical part. The latter which is easily introduced through a red pipe into the stomach after which the horizontal part is straightened for the examination. This part can be turned through any angle. After examination the vertical part is turned into the flexible state, so that it can be easily drawn out.

## Heating and Lighting.

**ADJUSTABLE HANGER FOR LIGHTS—H. J. Hume Hilliard, Wash. D. C.**  
 The object of this invention is to provide a means of construction for an adjustable hanger that is particularly well adapted for the suspension of a lamp or the like from an overhead support, and enable the vertical adjustment of the light at a desired height.

**NOTE—Copies of any of these patents will be furnished by Messrs. Knut & Co. for ten cents each. Please state the name of the patent, the title of the invention, and date of this paper.**

## Legal Notices

## PATENTS

**INVENTORS are invited to communicate with Messrs. Knut & Co., 261 Broadway, New York, or 205 F Street, Washington, D. C., in regard to securing valid patents in the United States, Great Britain and Continental Europe.**

**A Free Opinion as to the probable possibility of an invention will be readily given to any inventor furnishing us with a model or sketch and a brief description of the device in question. Communications are strictly confidential. Our Stand-Back on Patents will be sent free on request.**

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**MUNN & CO., 261 Broadway, New York. Branch Office, 205 F St., Washington, D. C.**

## INDEX OF INVENTIONS

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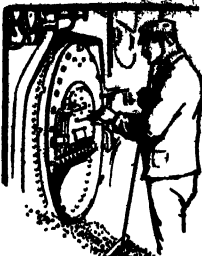
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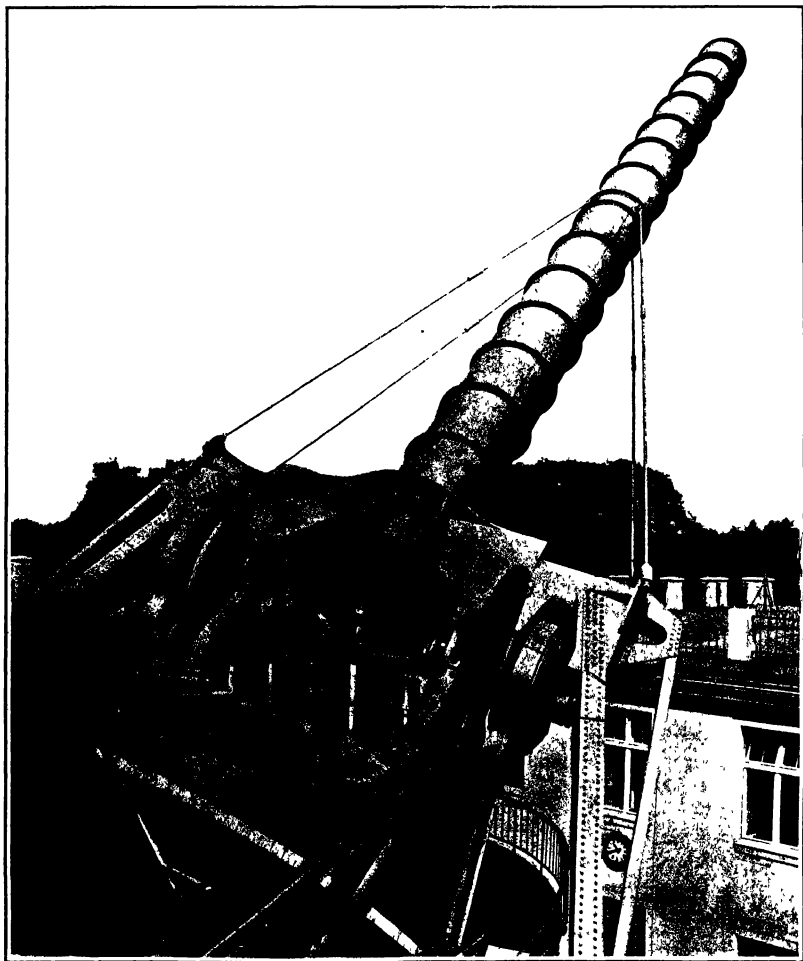
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January 30, 1910

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The longest telescope in the world at Lick Observatory, near Berlin. Total length 60 feet; has 27 inches in diameter.

A GREAT OPEN-AIR TELESCOPE. [See page 104.]



## ENGINEERING.

We note that the Indiana State Railway Commission has recently issued a ruling that all locomotives except those that are engaged in switching be equipped with headlights of not less than 1,500 candle-power.

A train consisting of 130 coal cars, each carrying 35 tons of coal, was recently hauled in 15 miles over the Virginian Railway in 3 hours, 15 minutes. The locomotive, which is of the Mallet type, weighed, with the tender 481,000 pounds, and the total weight of the train was over 9,000,000 pounds.

In view of the continued improvement which is taking place in the marine turbine, the outlook for the early installation of the marine gas engine in ships of large power is not very promising. Perhaps the future of the latter lies in the direction of small high-speed engines generating current to be used on slow-speed electric motors direct connected to the propeller shafts.

In the recent placing of a memorial window in Westminster Abbey to Sir Benjamin Baker, a fitting tribute was paid to a great engineer and a precedent was established which in this age of technical achievements must meet with universal approval. The tablet reads in memory of Sir Benjamin Baker, *Civil Engineer, Forth Bridge, America 1890-1907*. It is probable that the series of windows, of which this forms one, will be reserved for commemoration of other famous engineers.

The warship has already surpassed the ocean liner in speed and she is rapidly overtaking her in size. The new British armored cruiser "Adon" will be about as long as the "Oreonic" and of the same beam as the "Marematina." At full speed, propelled by 10,000-horse-power turbines, she will make from 28 to 30 knots. With her eight 12-inch guns carried high above the water line, her four smokestacks and two tripod masts, this great ship will certainly present a most formidable appearance.

The really extraordinary increase in the power of reciprocating engines due to utilizing the exhaust in a low pressure turbine will be understood when it is borne in mind that in expanding steam from say 150 pounds to a 35-lb. vacuum, over 50 per cent of the expansion and over 40 per cent of the reduction in temperature occur below atmospheric pressure, or say, from about one pound gauge to about one pound absolute. It took the turbine engine a long time to recover the heat energy thus lost in the exhaust.

We understand that the British government is favorable to the construction of a ship canal across Scotland from the Firth of Forth by way of Duff, Loch Lomond, and Loch Lomond to the Firth of Clyde. The plan proposed calls for 35 miles of lake navigation. It is estimated that the work can be completed in nine years at an expenditure of about \$100,000,000 if the canal be built to conform to naval requirements of a minimum depth of 35 feet and bottom width of 148 feet, with locks to match, the government will be prepared to cooperate with private enterprise.

The improvement in roadbed, rolling stock and protective signaling on American railroads is shown by the Bureau of Railway News of Chicago, whose returns show that 340 roads operating over 153,000 miles of railway have not killed a passenger during a period of one year. It is true that toward the close of 1909 there was one of those curious epidemics of accidents which cast a shadow over this record, but the immunity mentioned above shows how vastly we have advanced over conditions of ten or fifteen years ago.

A contract has been let for the removal of the fallen portion of the Quebec Bridge which now lies in a tangled mass upon the south shore of the river. According to press reports the steel to be secured for removal by means of a mechanical crane, but we do not place much credence in the statement, for the reason that the obviously ideal method would be to use the oxy-hydrogen or oxy-acetylene flame, whose apparatus is so portable as to be easily set up in any of the many difficult positions which would be necessary.

Comparative tests of consolidation and Mallet locomotives over mountainous grades on the Southern Pacific Railway, under conditions of maximum load, have shown that round locomotives in favor of the Mallet compound over the simple high-pressure locomotive of the standard type. The Mallet locomotive averaged 7.31 per cent more work per pound of coal, showed 14.64 per cent more ton miles per gallon of water used in the main cylinders, and 33.69 per cent more ton miles per pound of oil burned, and because of its greater size and greater boiler capacity, more steam. The economy is due to the re-heating of the steam, the heating of the feed water, and compensating. The re-heating and feed water heater reduced the maximum temperature of the steam from 600° to 575° in the cylinder, and to 515° in the Mallet type.

## ELECTRICITY.

Among the most important advantages of the "Pay-as-you-go" car is the fact that these cars are safer to passengers getting on and off and fewer accidents occur from persons stealing rides. Statistics have been compiled for the Chicago railroad which show the safety of the "Pay-as-you-go" cars. They indicate the number of accidents has been reduced 21.9 per cent.

A recent report of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company shows that at the end of 1908 the Bell Companies owned 3,600,000 telephones, while 1,500,000 were owned by companies under contract agreements with the associated Bell companies. This is an increase of 600,000 telephones during the year. The system comprises 10,550,000 miles of wire, 400,000 miles of which were added last year. Half of the total mileage is underground.

A test of Thomas A. Edison's storage battery car was recently made at West Orange, N. J. The car is 36 feet long and weighs 5 tons. It was fitted with two 7½-horse-power motors, and the operating cost is estimated at one cent a mile. During the test, the car was operated at a speed of twenty miles per hour. The motors are operated at 110 volts, and it is claimed that a run of 150 miles can be made without recharging the batteries.

It has been reported that the Illinois Tunnel Company of Chicago is about to establish a system comprising 20,000 telephones which will be operated in competition with the present telephone system of the city. The new system will make connections with long distance lines. The Tunnel Company has many years put in a system of automatic telephone ten years ago, but these are to be discarded and replaced with new and up-to-date apparatus.

Metal flames are now being used on ships and railroad cars. Such uses were considered impossible a few years ago owing to the frailty of the long thin metal required in these lamps, and it was supposed at the time that they could never be used anywhere but on a fixed support and hanging downwards. Now the flames are so much stronger that in a recent railroad wreck the metal filament lamps in a car that was completely overturned were found to be in perfect condition and fit for further use in the regular service.

At a recent meeting of the New York Electrical Society one of the speakers, lecturing on the subject of domestic electricity referred to a certain house that had been designed and built and lighted by electricity alone. The house contains no chimneys, stoves or coal storage room, and the saving in these requirements of the usual coal-burning system was sufficient to pay for the entire electric installation. In regions where the cost of coal is high and water power is plentiful electric heating and lighting is no doubt more economical than coal heating.

One of our large electric illuminating companies has found a new field for the consumption of electricity, namely, the Chinese laundry. A Chinaman was induced to equip his shop with an electric washing machine and electric iron, and the photograph of this enterprising Oriental with his electrically equipped shop is being sent around among Chinese laundries, together with a letter written in Chinese calling attention to the advantages of modern methods in the laundry business. It will be interesting to watch the success of this experiment.

A carefully tabulated record of the cost of electric wagons and horse rigs used by the Commonwealth Edison Company of Chicago has just been published. It shows conclusively that the electrically operated wagon is cheaper than the horse drawn vehicle, and when we add to this advantage the fact that it makes a better appearance, is handier, and can cover ground in less time, it is not surprising to find that the electrically operated wagon is far superior to the horse drawn vehicle and will undoubtedly displace it. Attention should also be called to the fact that the cost of the horse drawn vehicle is increasing rapidly, particularly because of the rise in the price of feed.

A thunderstorm observatory has been established in Spain by Señor G. J. de Gullón Garzafiz, which atmospheric discharges, both local and distant, are being recorded. The observatory is a simple electric instrument is used for this purpose, because each lightning discharge is accompanied by electromagnetic waves similar to those used in wireless telegraphy. If there is a storm anywhere within a radius of 500 miles the observer is notified of the fact by the recording instrument. As all barometric depressions that pass over Western Europe come from the Atlantic Ocean the new observatory will be a meteorologist's dream warning of the approaching disturbance. By noting the intensity of the sounds produced in the receiver and observing whether they grow distant or less, it is possible to determine the approximate course of the storm.

## SCIENCE.

Lieut. Ernest H. Shackleton has announced that he will enter upon another Antarctic expedition. The date of the expedition has not as yet been decided.

The Brooklyn Public Library has published a little pamphlet on "Aeronautics or Aerial Navigation," which comprises a list of books and references to periodicals in the Brooklyn Public Library on the subject of aeronautics. The list is fairly complete, and may be regarded as an excellent bibliography of a most timely subject.

A tyrannosaurus has been placed on exhibition in the Utomaur Hall of the American Museum of Natural History. This dinosaur measures 40 feet in length. The jaws of the massive skull are four feet long and were armed with sharply pointed teeth. Tyrannosaurus was probably the largest carnivorous animal that ever roamed the earth.

The Boott expedition in search of the South Pole is now assured. The British government has from land \$100,000 toward the \$200,000 which is the estimated expense. A total of between \$50,000 and \$60,000 has been raised by public subscription. In all likelihood the expedition will start in July. Capt. Scott commanded the British Arctic expedition of 1900-1901. Shackleton was one of his lieutenants.

Many attempts have been made to use newspapers and other printed sheets in the manufacture of white paper, but the success of the process has hitherto been marred by the presence of an undesirable impurity. In a process recently patented in Germany the paper pulp is treated with alkaline solutions of peroxide of hydrogen, which is a stable and alkaline variety, which so silicate the growth part of the ink that it ceases to bind the lamellae and other pigments, which are then easily separated from the fiber by centrifuging the pulp.

An international agreement for the prohibition of the use of saccharine has been initiated by the French government. Favorable responses were received from Germany, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Greece, Italy, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden, and Switzerland, and a meeting of delegates from these countries was held in Paris, under the presidency of the French minister of foreign affairs. The commission was assembled to consider the form of the adoption of a formal prohibition of the use of saccharine in foods and beverages. The French government will transmit this prohibition to the governments of the other countries.

A recent German patent describes the preparation of a cement mass composed of slaked lime and water, with small quantities of alkali and a carbohydrate. 100 parts of a slaked lime and water, containing approximately equal amounts of lime and water, are mixed with 1 or 2 parts of a carbohydrate free from water such as gum arabic, dextrin or sugar, and an equal quantity of a neutral or weak salt which is decomposed by lime. The mixture becomes as fluid as if a large quantity of water had been added to the lime, but soon solidifies and attains the form of any mold into which it is poured. If about 2 parts of colloid wood pulp or other fibrous material are added, good imitations of wood and ivory can be made.

The investigation of the spectra of the planets, which was begun at Lowell Observatory in 1902, has been continued. The result of recent work is given by V. M. Slipher in a bulletin just issued. Slipher found a combination of rays which renders the spectral lines of the commercial dry plate fairly uniform into the red as far as to the long wave beyond which point it drops rapidly, but is sufficient at A to record faintly that line in the primary solar spectrum. With the aid of this plate the spectra of Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus and Neptune have been photographed with greater extension into the red than any previous photographic or visual observations and a number of lines and bands have been discovered.

The best is one of the most valuable cultivated plants. The red garden varietal furnishes a variety of vegetables, the large fava beans from an excellent food for cattle, and the sugar beet is one of the principal sources of sugar. The following is a list of this valuable root has now been increased by the production of an edible root from sugar beets. The designation of altered sugar beets (*Zuckerschetteln*) is already in use in Germany. Although they are expensive, but the product is employed exclusively as food for cattle. In Belgium, however, a meal is now made from dried beets which, according to a paper read before the recent meeting of the committee, is entirely free from the distinctive flavor of the beet and is suitable for use in making cakes, puddings, and pastry. As it contains about 45 per cent of sugar it can often be substituted for sugar. The product is in somewhat larger quantities. The process of de-leafing and grinding not only cost less than the extraction of sugar, but preserve all the sugar of the beet of sugar. The sugar of the beet is a form of molasses, in the process of sugar making.

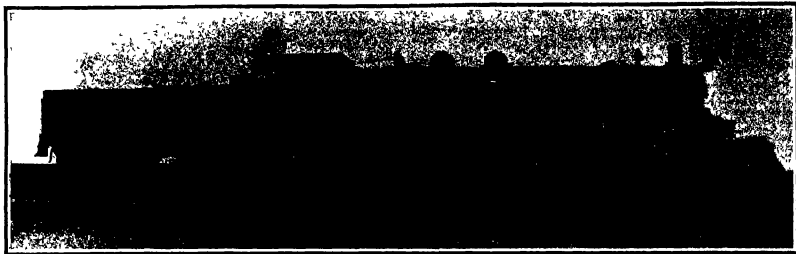
# A NEW ERA OF THE AMERICAN LOCOMOTIVE

## TWO REMARKABLE ENGINES

It is not stretching the point too far to say that the design of the locomotives herewith illustrated, one for passenger and the other for freight service, marks a new era in the development of the American steam locomotive. This is particularly true of the passenger

This has been done in both engines by utilizing the great length of boiler space afforded by the articulated system of construction. As will be seen from our sectional view, the boiler proper terminates above the high-pressure cylinders. The shell, however, is ex-

posed to the low-pressure cylinders, the heat so taken up by the steam serving in each case to raise the heat energy of the latter. Finally the gases pass through a large nest of tubes, around which the feed water is caused to circulate and is raised to the



Weight of engine and tender, 80 tons. Tractive force, 84,400 lbs. Heating surface, 4,760 square feet. Steam pressure, 250 pounds. Superheating and reheating surface, 1,412 square feet. Cylinders: Two high pressure, 24 inches by 30 inches. Two low pressure, 36 inches by 36 inches. Driving wheels, 72 inches.

### The most powerful passenger locomotive in existence.—A new type

ger locomotive, with which, by the introduction of the Mallet articulated piston, it has become possible to haul heavy fast passenger trains which with the present type of locomotive, it is necessary to run in two sections. Moreover, so powerful is this engine that it can haul over the heavy grades of the mountain divisions transcontinental trains which at present call for the assistance of an extra locomotive.

The Mallet articulated freight locomotive is already familiar, but the claim to distinction of the truly mammoth affair recently built for the Santa Fe Railroad is based on its great weight of 80 tons and its tractive force of 84,400 lbs., both of which figures greatly exceed those for any previous freight locomotive. Both locomotives were built by the Baldwin Locomotive Works for the Atchafalaya & Santa Fe Railroad.

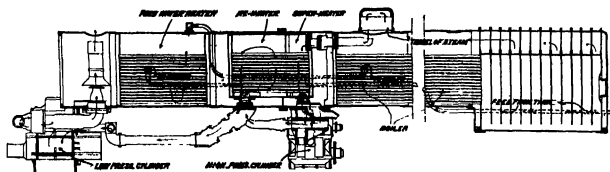
The most important novelty, common to both engines, and the one which marks a distinctly new era in locomotive practice in this country, lies in the means which have been taken to transform the locomotive from one of the most wasteful into a reasonably economical power plant (if we may use the term)

tended forward to the low-pressure cylinders, and within it are placed two nests of fire tubes, through both of which the hot gases pass on their way to the smokestack. The first of these is divided by a diaphragm into a superheater and a re-heater, the second forms the feed water heater.

Now, in the ordinary locomotive the gases, still very hot, after emerging from the front end of the fire tube, pass out through the smokestack and waste an

boiling point, as it travels from the tank on the tender to the boiler.

The advantages of this system are that not only is a much larger percentage of the heat energy of the fuel turned into useful work, but the super-heating and re-heating enable the well-known economies of compounding to be realized to the fullest extent. As a consequence the coal consumption per ton mile has been reduced by approximately fifty per cent, ten per cent of which is estimated to be due to super-heating and re-heating, fifteen per cent to feed water heating, and twenty-five per cent to compounding. These figures are at present merely an estimate, but we see no reason why, with proper firing and intelligent handling of the throttle, these great economies should not be realized in actual service. The Santa Fe passenger locomotive embodies the first attempt to apply the articulated system to passenger service. The proportions are enormous, far exceeding any existing passenger locomotive either here or abroad. As far as cylinder and driving wheel arrangements are concerned, the engine is practically a combination of the



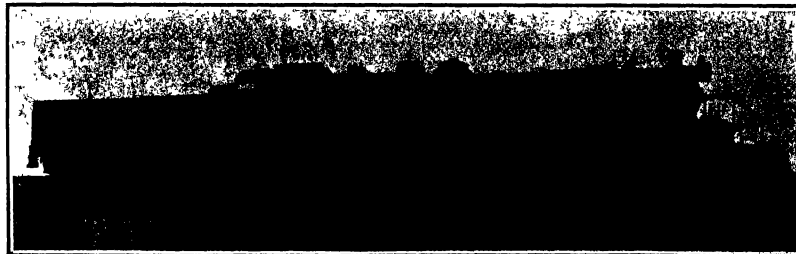
In this boiler part of the heat in the furnace gases which is ordinarily lost through the smokestack, is utilized to superheat and reheat the steam on its way to the cylinders and to heat the feed water before it enters the boiler.

### The new boiler which saves 25 per cent of fuel

consumes amount of useful heat into the atmosphere. The Santa Fe locomotives return a large part of this heat to the boiler and engine. Referring to the diagram, it will be noticed that these heat recovery devices first serve to raise the temperature of the steam as it passes from the steam dome to the high pressure cylinder. Then the gases yield up still more of their heat to the exhaust steam as it passes from

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(Continued on page 118)



Weight of engine and tender, 80 tons. Tractive force, 84,400 lbs. Heating surface, 4,760 square feet. Steam pressure, 250 pounds. Superheating and reheating surface, 1,412 square feet. Cylinders: Two high pressure, 24 inches by 30 inches. Two low pressure, 36 inches by 36 inches. Driving wheels, 72 inches.

### The most powerful locomotive. Weight, 850 tons.

A NEW ERA OF THE AMERICAN LOCOMOTIVE.



# PUTTING OLD NEPTUNE TO WORK

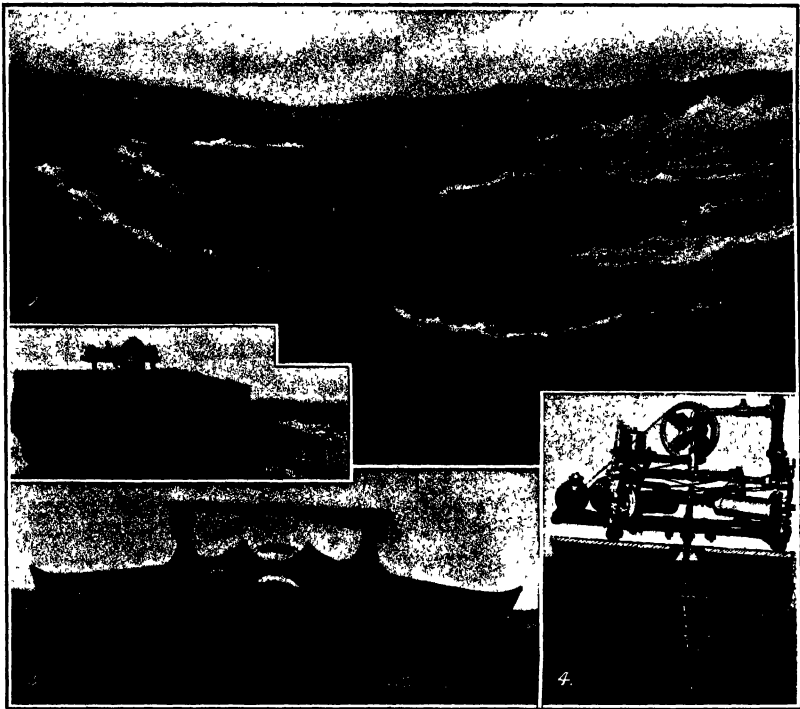
Twice each day millions of tons of shipping in New York Harbor are lifted to a height of over four feet and dropped the same distance by the tide. This same work is done in every port to a greater or less degree. Many a man has enviously considered this enormous expenditure of power and racked his brains for a means of putting it to valuable service. However, the work done by the tide is enormous only because of its vast extent and herein lies the delusion which many an inventor has failed to discover until he has devoted much thought and time on evolving a tide motor. The work done in raising of the "Lust Lania," for instance, which weighs 40,000 tons, represents an expenditure of energy of only sixteen horse-

is utilized to operate a series of pistons pumping air into a compressed air tank. The compressed air tank and four pairs of cylinders are mounted on the main float. The piston rods are connected at their outer ends to the four floats and when these floats are rocked by the waves they serve to reciprocate the pistons and pump the air. This action takes place regardless of the direction in which the waves are traveling because the auxiliary floats extend in four directions.

An entirely different method of utilizing the force of the waves is shown in Fig. 2. This consists of a large crib placed in the water and having one end upon so that the waves will wash up over the floor of the crib as they do on an ocean beach. At the back of the crib

rock to and fro the piston is rotated first in one direction and then the other, and this motion serves to pump air into a tank. The air from the tank operates a pneumatic motor which in turn drives a dynamo and generates electricity. In order to permit the floats to swing about in any direction without danger of fouling the anchor line one of the floats is mounted on a swivel which is securely anchored. By means of contact wheels engaging contact rings on the swivel the electricity generated is conveyed to a pair of cables which extend to the shore.

The construction shown in Fig. 4 depends for its operation on an entirely different principle. It is well known that the wave disturbance of the ocean does



Four novel methods of utilizing the power of the waves.

## PUTTING OLD NEPTUNE TO WORK

power, this being due to the fact that the tide acts very slowly, taking six hours to raise the vessel to a height of four feet.

However, there is another form of energy displayed by the ocean which is far more powerful than that of the tide, and here there appears to be more opportunity for capturing a portion of this power and devoting it to practical use. The waves of the ocean are not as deliberate as the tides and the chief difficulty with which the inventor must contend is that in time of storm they develop entirely too much energy and are apt to wreck his machines.

In the accompanying engraving we illustrate some recent constructions which have been devised for the purpose of obtaining power from the waves. That shown in Fig. 1 consists of a large square float on which the principal mechanism is mounted. Hinged to this float are four auxiliary floats and the rocking motion between the auxiliaries and the main float that

are a pair of curved deflecting walls below which is placed a triangular casing provided with a series of awl-like doors or vanes. When the waves wash up the floor of the crib they close the vanes against the rising and divided by the roof of the casing are directed against the deflecting walls. The rear of the triangular casing is opened, permitting the water to flow through as the wave recedes and strike against the rear faces of the waves opening them to the position shown in the illustration. The vanes are geared to a series of piston rods which operate the cylinders to fill a compressed-air chamber. The latter, by means of a pair of air motors operates a dynamo and generates electricity which may be conveyed to any desired spot and utilized.

Fig. 2 shows a construction similar to Fig. 1, making use of the rocking of two floats. The floats are hinged to each other and one carries a rack adapted to engage a piston mounted on the other float. As the floats

not extend to any great depth and it is the relative motion of the surface water with respect to the water at a considerable depth that is made use of in this case to generate power. A float is provided from the center of which projects a shaft fitted at its lower end with a set of radial fins. When the float is rocked by the waves the shaft tends to remain vertical owing to these fins. Mounted on the float are a series of cylinders provided with the usual pistons which are connected to an extension of the vertical shaft just referred to, and while the pistons remain virtually fixed the cylinders are reciprocated upon them by the rocking of the float. The pistons serve to circulate oil through a rotary engine which in turn drives a dynamo and thus generates electricity. When the wave motion becomes too violent an electrically-operated pump permits a portion of the oil to circulate without passing through the motor and thus an excessive speed is prevented.





# A GREAT OPEN-AIR TELESCOPE

BY PROF. S. A. MITCHELL  
COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

A giant telescope has been erected in Germany having for its main purpose the making of astronomical popular through exhibitions to the public of the heavy duty body. The United States has repeatedly told itself Germany in her advance along a scientific line and it is now a splendid opportunity to emulate her by the erection of a great public telescope (say) in New York city.

A contrast of this new German telescope at Trepow (near Berlin) with the highest development of American navigation proves of the greatest interest. In the *Yerkes* telescope (see *Scientific American* of December 26th, 1909) we have a great instrument given over to exact research, handled by a corps of expert astronomers, leaders in their special lines of work. Prof. W. S. Barnard is there with his keen eye for the measurement of the positions of comets, star clusters, etc., for the depicting of slight planetary details, or with the help of the photographic plate for the portrayal of Mars on a large scale. The greatest living authority on double stars, Prof. S. W. Burnham spends two nights each week with the great 40 inch refractor. The director, Prof. E. F. Frost, takes care of the spectroscope side of astronomy by photographing the spectra of stars for the determining of their motions in the line of sight and by day time the telescope is made use of to learn of interesting phenomena about the sun. This great telescope is a model of engineering perfection with its great tube and massive masts rising from a rotating dome. It is mounted in what is known as the equatorial form.

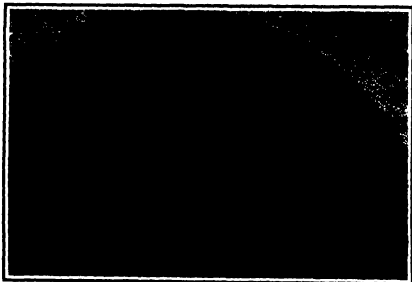
But how different is the Trepow telescope! Erected with other purposes in view, it is not necessary to have expert scientists to keep the telescope employed almost every hour during the day and night constructed under a different plan it is unnecessary to have a great elevating tier inside of a huge rotating dome, for in fact the dome is done away with and the telescope is used in the open air! This then brings something radically new in the old scheme of astronomy, something entirely different in the construction of a great telescope. And this new form of instrument has many points in its favor that make it a most interesting telescope.

The director of the Trepow Observatory, Dr. F. S. Archenhold, by his rapid rise came into opposition with the German scientists who ridiculed the idea of placing in the open air with no protection from the wind a great tube 68,910 feet in length seven feet longer than the *Yerkes* telescope (62 feet). But undaunted, Dr. Archenhold persevered and finally secured sufficient funds for the erection of the largest telescope in the world. And this too in scientific Germany!

The front-page illustration shows the Trepow telescope. The old equatorial form of mounting was departed from, for this requires that the eye-end of the telescope be raised through a vertical distance approximately half the length of the telescope tube in viewing a star overhead and one near the horizon. This necessitated a very expensive elevating floor run by electric motors (see *Scientific American*, December 26th, 1909) by actuating the telescope tube in a great fork and employing suitable counterpoises. Dr. Archenhold was able to have the eye-piece near the center of motion and run the telescope tube upward into the air. The details of this will be readily seen by referring to the illustration. This eliminated the rising floor and saved many thousands of dollars. The low forked mounting with its very movable parts placed on a solid concrete foundation insured a stable instrument and as the whole construction had no

great height it became possible to house the telescope by turning the long telescope tube into a horizontal position and pulling over it a cheap portable house. By using the telescope in the open air it became possible to entirely eliminate the great dome, and thereby save again many thousands of dollars. The result of these plans were that Dr. Archenhold was able to build the completed instrument for the modest sum of \$62,500. Of this sum \$11,500 was spent for the lens, which was made of the celebrated Jena glass ground by the old-established firm of Schott, in Munich. The lens is 37 inches in diameter, and is an excellent one.

The radical departure from old-established forms in eliminating the dome has many points in its favor besides the mere saving of money, and also many drawbacks. As is well known to astronomers, the temperature of the night air is continually falling (especially in the early part of the night), and it is impossible to have the air in the interior of the dome at the same temperature as the outside air. This causes the heated air to pour out through the slit of the dome, and also produces currents of air in the interior of the telescope tube itself. All of this makes "bad seeing," and a distortion of the telescopic images—the bane of the astronomer of the professional astronomer.



View taken under the mounting, showing the electric motors for driving the telescope.

## A GREAT OPEN-AIR TELESCOPE

Dr. Archenhold's plan of doing without a dome eliminates most of the effects of air currents, for there is no "dome effect," as astronomers call it, and the air in the telescope tube quickly takes the temperature of that outside. Here, then, is a decided advantage. But unfortunately the telescope being in the open air makes it the sport of every passing wind, and even a slight wind is apt to set up a vibration in the telescope, especially so when the tube is so long as in the Archenhold telescope, which is supported not in the middle, as in the ordinary telescope, but entirely at one end. Though the vibrations may be small and imperceptible to the eye, still when the telescope is pointed at a fixed star the immense magnifying power of the long telescope would make even the slightest tremors readily visible and would spoil the use of the instrument for accurate work. It would seem that for the important researches of the exact astronomer the open-air telescope would be a failure, but for public exhibitions only it is another story. The absence of dome and rising floor eliminates a great amount of expense, and the modest amount of the popular subscriptions can be all put into the construction of a telescope thus obtaining a much larger instrument. The telescope is raised and a star located by means of a six-horsepower electric motor. In order to know if the telescope pointed correctly at the celestial object,

it is necessary to drive the telescope to make it move from east to west, otherwise owing to the earth's rotation the object would quickly move from the field of the telescope. In the Trepow telescope both observer and instrument must be moved and the details of how this is done by a six-horsepower motor regulated by clockwork can be seen in the smaller illustration.

## THE COST OF OUR NAVY.

IT COSTS A GOOD DEAL OF MONEY TO RUN A NAVY.

The actual expenses of running the navy of the United States for the past fiscal year amounted to \$43,750,000. In this sum is included everything, from the pay of enlisted men to the repairs and equipment of vessels and the vessels include the guns and receiving ships as well as the battleships.

The battleship "Connecticut," flagship of the Atlantic fleet, may be taken as an example of the cost of keeping a vessel of that type in service. The pay of officers and enlisted men attached to this vessel with the other expenses amounted to more than \$700,000 during the fiscal year just passed. The Atlantic fleet in that period included sixteen first-class war vessels, six of the "Connecticut" type, five of the "Georgia" class, and the others ranging from 13,000 tons to 11,000 tons. The average cost of keeping a vessel of the "Georgia" class in commission, not including repairs, is \$477,500 a year.

The classes below the "Georgia" require expenditures ranging from \$23,000 to \$604,000. While the figures will vary for the same vessels in different years, the cost changes very little from year to year for the same class. \$10,521,000 was the total cost for running the sixteen ships of the Atlantic fleet for the past year. There were twenty-three first-class battleships in commission last year, and the total cost of keeping them in service exclusive of repairs, was \$13,035,000, making an average cost for running them \$572,084. On all these ships the repairs amounted to only \$100,498.

It might seem strange, but it is a fact nevertheless, that it costs more to maintain a cruiser than it does a battleship. There were ten armored cruisers in commission last year, the total cost of running amounting to \$7,175,000, or an average per ship of \$717,500.

It would seem at the present time that there is to be no limit to the increased size of future battleships, and naturally there will be an increased cost of running expenses. For instance, the latest battleships to be placed in commission, the "Michigan" and the "South Carolina," each require a crew of 51 officers and 318 men. These vessels are of 16,000 tons displacement. The next that will be ready for service are the "Delaware" and "North Dakota," each of 20,000 tons displacement. Each of these fighting crafts will require 55 officers and 378 men. Then will come the "Florida" and "Tahiti," each of a normal displacement of 11,250 tons. The numbers of the sea will have in their respective complements 60 officers and 354 men. But we have not reached the latest "men-of-war" yet. The contracts have already been let for the "Arkansas" and the "Oregon." Remember the "Oregon" of Spanish American war fame? Well, that is only half a battleship besides these. They displace 20,000 tons each, with a crew of 1,600 men, and 55 officers to command.

The Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company reports that on certain of its lines in that city since the introduction of "pay-representative" street cars, the number of accidents to persons has decreased 74 per cent. This remarkable change is attributed to the arrangement of closed doors and stopping places, it is impossible for passengers to get on or off when the cars are moving.

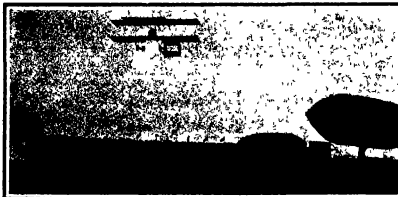
## AMERICA'S FIRST AVIATION MEET AT LOS ANGELES

DETAILED ACCOUNT OF THE FLIGHTS MADE BY THE AMERICAN AND FRENCH AVIATORS

The first aviation meeting to be held in this country opened at Los Angeles, Cal., on the 10th instant. Louis Paulhan, the record-breaking French aviator, was present with two Farman biplanes and two Bleriot monoplanes. America was represented by Glenn Curtiss, C. P. Willard, and C. K. Hamilton, all of whom flew Curtiss biplanes. The field that served as an aerodrome

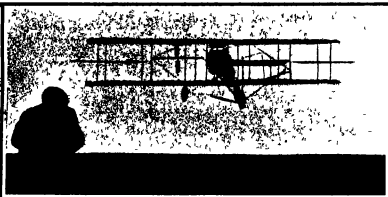
was located a few miles from Los Angeles. It was not an ideal place for flying since it was not level. One end of the field was at a considerably higher elevation than the other and the machines were, therefore, obliged to fly quite high in order to pursue a level course. A hexagonal course of 1.61 miles was used. Only a few short flights were made by Messrs

Curtiss and Willard the first day. Messrs. Leachy and Knabenhus, in their dirigible balloons, flew 200 feet above the grand stand against a wind of 10 to 12 miles an hour. Paulhan made his initial flight of 8½ minutes at this time, covering an estimated distance of 3½ miles. In the second flight he remained aloft 10 minutes. His third flight lasted 29 minutes. He



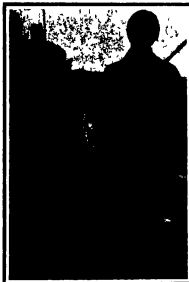
The two Farman biplanes flying in front of the grand stand.

The Knabenhus and Leachy dirigibles are seen at the right



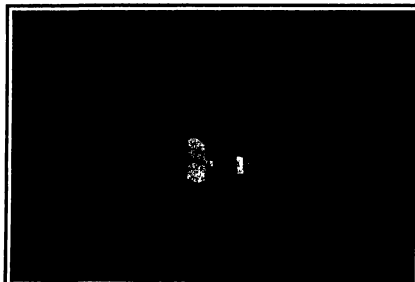
Chas. F. Willard flying in the Curtiss biplane of the Aeronautic Society.

Mr. Willard won the prize for sighting upon a square having 25-foot sides.



Mr. and Mme. Louis Paulhan.

The daring French aviator and his wife held the record for cross-country flying



The Bleriot monoplane in flight as seen from a balloon.

These two views of the Bleriot monoplane give a good idea of its equally level like appearance when viewed from above or below. Paulhan saw this line without difficulty, but his inexperienced assistants met with accidents and broke both machines



Making a turn



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Paulhan making his record-breaking high-flight in the Farman biplane. He reached an official height of 4,165 feet

This machine is the most improved type of biplane produced abroad. A single vertical rubber is now fitted between the surfaces of the tail in place of the twin rubbers used heretofore. The hinged wing tips for stability are set into the rear edges of the planes. Note also the monoplane wheels and skids for running on the ground and alighting. One blade of the propeller can be seen below the revolving-cylinder motor at the rear.

AERONAUTS AND DIRECTOR AT AMERICA'S FIRST AVIATION MEET AT LOS ANGELES, CAL.

sides dashing at the grand stand and just clearing the heads of the spectators, he flew out of sight over the neighboring ranches.

On the second day the first flights were made by Paulhan, who took out with Mr. Crev's Farman biplane and drove it thrice around the course in a stiff wind, said to be of 18 miles an hour velocity, which was blowing from the sea. Next for variety he mounted one of the Elbert monoplane and, with Missacard had been attempting to get off the ground. He had no difficulty in flying it in the wind that was blowing. Although it bobbed up and down and was tossed about like a small boat on an angry sea, Paulhan flew about the field and several times swept past the grand stand, performing various maneuvers and rising to an estimated height of 200 feet. The spectators gave a sigh of relief when he finally landed across the field from the stand. He was soon out again with his Farman biplane, in which he quickly disappeared from view far to the north. Shortly after he reappeared over the trees of a nearby ranch, and frequently flew about the grand stand, turning aside just in time to clear the spectators or else to sweep over their heads. This flight of about 1/4 miles lasted 21 minutes and 12 seconds. It was the fourth flight he had made on the second day of the meeting. After Paulhan's flight, Mr. Curtiss brought out his Rhinoceros racer, which is fitted with an Scintille water-cooled motor of 100-horsepower. Mr. Fennell climbed on board with Curtiss, and the machine shot into the air for its speed test with a passenger. After describing a wide circle in front of the grand stand, Curtiss flew around the course at a speed figured out by Lieut. Beck, at 18 1/2 miles an hour. Curtiss—one of the judges—after forty miles an hour. Paulhan immediately started a flight. At the same time Messrs. Willard and Hamilton started on their Curtiss biplane. In front of the grand stand, Curtiss followed them a few moments after with Mr. Clifford Harmon as a passenger. All four machines were flying at the same time, a spectacle which was a new thing in the world of aviation. Paulhan landed a few minutes later, took on one of his machines as a passenger and twice circled the course as readily as he had done alone.

Curtiss established a new start time record and also a record for landing. In his first flight he flew in a circle over the field in something over two minutes and landed exactly in the square from which he started. He broke his own record for starting by getting off the ground in 17 1/2 seconds after a run of but 20 feet. Paulhan required 124 seconds time and a run of over 100 feet.

The great event of the day was Paulhan's successful attempt at breaking the world's record for altitude. The existing record had been made only six days before by Hubert Latham at Mouchamps, France, with his Antoinette monoplane, and was 2,444 feet. Paulhan started in front of the grand stand, and heading north, he went steadily upward in a circle until he was nearly a mile high. So high did he fly that to the eyes of the onlookers the machine appeared the merest speck in the sky. After ascending some 46 minutes, he pointed his biplane once more toward the earth, and came down at a much greater angle and in less time (7 1/2 minutes). The registering barometer on his machine registered 1,845 meters or just over 6,000 feet, so that Paulhan had apparently beaten Latham's record by some 1,500 feet. He was in the air for 52 minutes upon landing. The total length of the flight was 53 minutes 45 1/2 seconds. Paulhan's height, as measured from the ground, was officially determined at 4,185 feet.

The fourth day Paulhan gave a good demonstration of the weight-carrying ability of his new Farman machine, which is much smaller and weighs 220 pounds less than the regular Farman biplane. By taking off his two assistants, Messrs. Nelson and Missacard, and circling several times around the course with them, Curtiss tried the course ten times in 34 minutes 54 1/2 seconds. Paulhan tried to beat this time and failed by five seconds only. Previously, he made three laps in 51 1/2 minutes carrying his wife as a passenger. After circling the field he alighted readily in the marked-off square from which he started. In another flight of 7 minutes' duration he carried Mrs. Ferris as a passenger. He again resorted to his sensational methods, flying low over the grand stand, making sharp turns, etc. Hamilton, Paulhan's Curtiss rival, was called in for three-lap flights for all events. The first named made a flight with his vertical rudder locked, in order to show that this rudder does not have to be used in connection with the balancing planes, as is done by

the Wright brothers when they warp the planes of their machine to correct its transverse equilibrium. This combined operation of the equilibrium-maintaining device with the vertical rudder is one of the strongest claims in the Wright patent. Where plane warping is employed, it is necessary, in order to prevent the slowing around of the machine, when the plane is warped to a greater angle. With balancing planes like those used by Curtiss, the resistance is placed at one end of the machine as great as at the other, the consequence being that the vertical rudder does not necessarily have to be used. This flight with the rudder fastened demonstrated very well the difference between the two systems. Mr. Willard again flew once around the course and landed in a measured square, thereby winning a prize of \$500. Paulhan was presented with a \$500 silver cup by enthusiastic citizens of San Diego. The next day he made a cross-country flight of some 16 miles to San Pedro and back, circling above the revenue cutters in the harbor and being greeted with cheers by the inhabitants. Paulhan also made 6 circuits of the course with his assistant in 18 1/2 minutes, and afterward flew twice around it alone in the Elbert monoplane. His fastest lap in the latter machine was done in 8 1/2 minutes, while a speed of 24 1/2 miles an hour. Curtiss made the fastest lap of the course in 12 1/2—speed of 34 1/2 miles per hour. Subsequent to a race with Beck, Hamilton made a lap in his dirigible in 51 1/2—speed of 18 1/2 miles per hour. Hamilton tried for the slow lap race and succeeded in making one circuit of the course in 13 1/2—speed of 26 1/2 miles an hour. The time for the slowest lap was done in 11 1/2 minutes, and a 12-minute flight for altitude, reaching a height of 530 1/2 feet.

But very little flying was done on the sixth day of the meeting, owing to wind and rain. The field was wet and muddy, but notwithstanding this, all the avi-

ators from Baltimore, Md., made several attempts to get off the ground, but was only successful in making a few short jumps. Mr. Clifford Harmon made a short flight alone in his new Curtiss biplane.

Tuesday, January 18th, is noteworthy for the long cross-country flight of Mons. Paulhan, who flew to "Lucky" Baldwin's ranch and back, a distance of about 47 1/2 miles, in 1 hour, 8 minutes, 43 1/2 seconds. The course of this flight was from a height of 2,120 feet according to the registering barometer carried in the biplane. Most of the time he was at a height of between 1,000 and 2,000 feet. During the return journey, which was made in about 25 minutes, Paulhan had to fight against a rather strong westerly wind, and yet he is said to have required only about three minutes more returning than he consumed in flying to the ranch. Probably at the elevation which he was traveling he did not encounter as strong a wind as was blowing near the earth.

January 18th was given up to the making of a number of flights with passengers. The weather was perfect save for a puff wind in the early afternoon, which later died out altogether. About 5:30 P. M. Paulhan started on a cross-country flight with his wife as a passenger. After circling above the grand stand, he left the course and headed directly toward the ocean. He flew at a height of some 500 feet to Redondo Beach. In the course of his flight he passed over several of the smaller islands, and at a distance of 20 miles he turned aside after 23 1/2 minutes, having covered over 30 miles across country without difficulty. This flight was twice as long as that made by Orville Wright at Fort Meyer last year, and was a new record. The environment is the longest cross-country flight ever made with a passenger, although it was not by any means as hazardous as the one made by Mr. Wright. Other flights were made with Mrs. C. P. Hume, Lieut. Paul Beck, W. R. Hearst, and a reporter for a New York newspaper. For the second time Lieut. Beck tried dropping dumplings upon a measured square on the ground. While he did not succeed in hitting the mark, he came very close to it, and showed the possibility of dynamiting a warship or a town in this way. Paulhan's last flight was made with Mr. Harmon as a passenger. It was a cross-country flight of 16 to 10 miles lasting about 20 minutes. Hamilton made three attempts at high flying, rising to heights of 450, 500, and 700 feet, respectively. The first of these flights was made in a plane which was fitted made to fly and was driven around the field by William Beatty. In descending, however, it was damaged. Curtiss made two laps, but was unsuccessful in breaking his speed record.

The last day of the meet, January 20th, Curtiss made the longest flight he has ever accomplished. Starting at 9:35 P. M. Paulhan had made but two or three laps, when Curtiss went aloft about half a lap behind him. Mounted on his Rhinoceros racer, Curtiss steadily gained upon Paulhan, and after making three laps passed him in front of the grand stand, his small biplane flying directly above the larger Farman machine. This was the first real race the spectators had witnessed, and Curtiss received great applause. He continued to fly around the course until he had covered 30 laps (48 1/2 miles) in 1 hour, 10 minutes, 43 1/2 seconds. The average speeds of Curtiss and Paulhan were respectively 37 1/2 and 35 1/2 miles an hour. Hamilton made a flight of 16 miles in 51 1/2 minutes. The average speed of his machine was 18 1/2 miles an hour. He rose to a height of several hundred feet and disappeared from view upon the horizon. Upon his return the crankshaft of his motor broke when he was nearly back, and he was recommended to glide down to the field and alighting without mishap. A feature of the last day was a parade showing the evolution of locomotion. The parade opened with the old-time "peirre schooner" and ended with the aeroplane.

#### The Women Aeromodels Show.

The first American show of the kind in America as a separate affair will open in the Mechanics Building, Boston, Mass., the evening of February 28th. This show will be held under the auspices of the Aero Club of New England, and will feature a number of model planes in the hands of the women. In this aeronautical world stand against for it. Besides numerous models of aeroplanes, there will be exhibited a number of ball-balloon representative models of the various types of balloons, and a number of model dirigibles. The show will also be an opportunity for the ladies to exhibit their own designs, and experiments, having anything to exhibit should communicate at once with the manager of the show, Mr. Charles C. Thompson, of Boston, Mass.



Prof. J. S. Yerby's multiplane. This machine is one of the following plane type.

#### A NOVEL AMERICAN AEROPLANE AT THE LOS ANGELES MEET

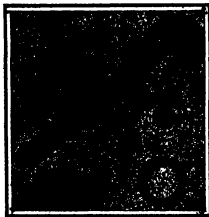
also got off the ground without much difficulty and made a few short flights. Paulhan attempted to beat Curtiss' ten lap record, but he was unsuccessful. Willard and Hamilton also made an attempt at this record, the latter covering the 16 1/2 miles in 30 34 3/8 or an average speed of 33 1/2 miles an hour. Missacard, Paulhan's assistant, made a brief exhibition flight with a Blériot monoplane. In landing, the machine tipped to one side, causing the wing to strike the ground and break off. The accident was blamed upon the substitution for wing warping of the movable ends of the tail, which normally move together and act as the horizontal rudder. By moving these ends of the tail in opposite directions, the transverse equilibrium can be maintained fairly well under ordinary conditions, although this method is not so positive as that of warping the wings themselves.

During January 18th, but few flights were made, as the weather still remained inclement. The following day, however, Paulhan attempted to break Farman's record of 4 hours and 17 minutes. After remaining about 1 hour, 15 minutes in the air, he was obliged to land. He covered 76 miles, Paulhan was obliged to descend on account of a leak in the gasoline tank. He therefore did not come within 2 1/2 hours of equalling Farman's record. Hamilton also flew during some of the time that Paulhan was making his endurance flight. He kept at a lower level and made 11 circuits of the course, but was obliged to stop on account of motor trouble. Curtiss landed his time for ten laps in 18 1/2 minutes, 42 1/2 seconds (40 1/2 miles an hour). His fastest lap was three seconds slower than his best previous circuit. Paulhan covered ten laps in 18 1/2 minutes, 42 1/2 seconds (40 1/2 miles an hour). The Gill-Dodge biplane, which is very much like the Curtiss, and which was constructed by two gentlemen



## TOOL FOR CUTTING STAY BOLTS.

Stay bolts in locomotive boilers usually break near the inner side of the outer head sheet. When the broken bolt is in position behind the frame of the locomotive it is necessary to drill the bolt on the firebox and drop it out of the way, after which a hole is bored



## TOOL FOR CUTTING STAY BOLTS.

through the stub in the outside sheet and the part of the bolt remaining is cut out with a round nose chisel. This is difficult to do, and it sometimes happens that the sheet is grooved in the operation, and trouble is caused thereby. With a view to overcoming this difficulty the tool illustrated in the accompanying engraving has been invented. It consists of a cutting member arranged to move in a sheath which can be fitted into the hole drilled in the bolt and serves as a guide for the cutter which is then operated to cut out the bolt. The body of the tool, which is of hexagonal form, is indicated at *A*. Projecting from the body *A* is a blade *B* formed with a bevel *C* at its lower edge. The sheath above referred to is indicated at *D* and is formed with a central bore to fit the bevel *C* and a slot to receive the flat portion of the blade as indicated in Fig. 2. The sheath *D* is reduced at *E* to form a centering guide. The bolt to be removed is first drilled out, as indicated in Figs. 3 and 4, to the diameter of the part *E* of the sheath. The portion *B* is then fitted into the bore, after which the cutting tool is operated to drive the end *F* of the blade into the bolt and cut it out as indicated in Fig. 1. After the bolt has been cut at three or four points it may easily be knocked out. Mr. William Smith of Peshigo, Wis., has secured a patent on this new cutting tool.

## WILKINS CENTRIFUGAL FORCE PRACTICALLY

A Danish engineer, resident in New York city, Dr. Albert C. Wilkins, has endeavored to turn to practical use the enormous centrifugal force generated by a rotating body. His invention is at present embodied in an actually constructed and operative air compressor, with what success we leave our readers to judge from the accompanying illustration and the following brief description.

In each of two parallel guide frames a block is mounted to reciprocate. Each block is connected with the piston rods of a duplex compressor. Through the blocks an axle runs to the end of which is attached a weight-carrying arm. When the arms are thrown forcibly to one side or the other, each block moves back and forth, because the centrifugal force produced at the weighted end of the arms is endeavoring to carry the weight off at a tangent to the circle from

its own center. But the center of each circle is the axle in the respective block. Hence the blocks move outward in their guide frames as the arms are thrown out. The angle bearings, center, arm weight are all therefore constantly changing position so long as the arm is being turned fast enough. Each centrifugal arm in its light does not describe a circle, but rather an elliptical curve due to the slanting of the block.

The two guide frames, as has been stated, are placed parallel to each other, each having a block, arm, weight, etc. The blocks are held in opposite positions so the arms will balance each other and so that the two blocks will always reciprocate in opposite directions.

The means employed to hold the centrifugal arms in position, and yet allow them to follow their respective "paths," consists of a shaft between the guide frames with two crank arms, each of which has a pin extending into a slot cut in each arm. The crank shaft is driven by a small motor. As the crank turns, the centrifugal arms are turned by the pins which project in the arm-slots. The greater the speed of the crank, the greater the power of the centrifugal arms. Because there is no connection between the centrifugal arms and the cranks, the reciprocating action of the blocks is caused entirely by centrifugal force.

It is a curious though easily comprehensible fact the amount of centrifugal force developed was so great in the machine illustrated that it was necessary to cut away part of the material of each arm and to reduce the weight so that the pistons would not hammer against the cylinder heads.

## BRACE FOR BRICK KILNS.

During the process of baking bricks the kilns expand and contract, and if the sides are not braced after they have contracted they are apt to tumble over if the kiln should expand again. Hitherto it has been the custom to brack the sides of a kiln with timbers and wedges which work involves considerable



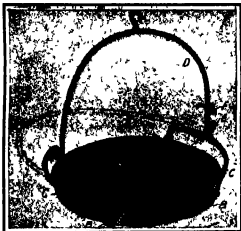
## BRACE FOR BRICK KILNS.

danger to the workmen while adjusting the wedges in order to remove this danger an inventor has recently devised the brace illustrated in the accompanying engraving. It consists of a bar *A* formed with teeth along its upper edge. One end of the bar is provided with a pair of studs adapted to engage a curved slot *B* in a supporting member *C*. The base of the supporting member is made broad so as to provide a large bearing surface. The bar *A* enters a recess in the supporting member and is cut away at *D* so that when the supporting member is pressed against the wall of the kiln the upper edge of the base will dig into the wall, as shown in one of the illustrations. The teeth on the bar *A* are adapted to be engaged by a pawl *E* which is fulcrumed in a member *F* that is supported on a timber disposed along the side of the kiln. The member *F* is held in place by teeth *G*, which dig into the wood. The pawl *E* is provided with a thumb piece *H* by which it may be lifted out of engagement with the ratchet teeth in the bar. In using this brace the workman thrusts the supporting member *C* against the side of the kiln and places the member *F* in position on the timber. Then pressing against the kiln with his foot he takes up the slack between the two members *C* and *F* by engagement of the pawl *E* with the ratchet teeth on

the bar *A*. Mr. Anatole Perusse (care of J. McLean, 245 East Strand, Rondout, N. Y.) has just received a patent on this improved brace for brick kilns.

## BUTCHER'S SCALE PAN.

It is customary for butchers to weigh meat in large scale pans that are usually provided with a rigid ball which is also of large dimensions, and the fact that the ball is rigidly attached to the pan makes it inconvenient to stow away the pan when it is not in use. The accompanying engraving illustrates an improved form of butcher's scale pan in which the ball is so mounted that it may be folded down against the pan when it is

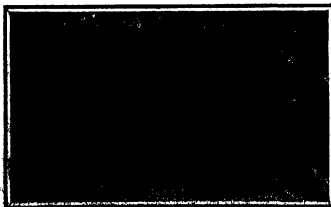


## BUTCHER'S SCALE PAN WITH FOLDING BALL.

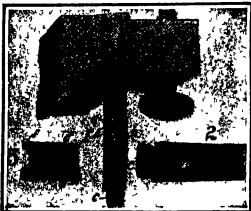
not in use, but whenever desired may be locked rigidly in an upright position. The ball is not directly connected with the pan, but to a pair of rails which serve to distribute the strain. In our illustration we have lettered the pan proper *A*. Riveted to the pan at the bottom are a pair of diametrically disposed straps *B* which cross each other at right angles and are bent up at the ends against the sides of the pan. The two rails *C* which are curved to conform approximately to the shape of the pan are secured to the ends of the bars *B*. Hinged to these rails is the ball *D* which is provided with the usual hook for attaching it to the scales. One of the rails *C* is formed with an outwardly projecting flange *E* in which is a square aperture adapted to receive a finger *F* that is free to slide on the ball *D*. When the finger *F* is fitted into this aperture the ball is held rigidly in upright position. On lifting up the finger *F* the ball is released and may be folded to the position indicated by dotted lines in the engraving. Mr. Jacob Feldman of 70 Carlton Avenue, Brooklyn, N. Y., has recently secured a patent on this improved scale pan.

## DOOR BRUTES.

A very convenient device for securely locking doors has recently been invented which should be of particular value to traveling men who often find it necessary to occupy a bedroom not fitted with an efficient lock. The locking device may readily be applied to any door without marring it in the least. As shown in our illustration, it consists of two plates. The larger plate *A* is provided with teeth which are placed against the jamb of the door and when the door is closed on the plate it forces these teeth into the wood. The opposite end of the plate *A* is turned back upon itself to form a bearing *B* the purpose of which will presently be explained. A square opening *D* is cut through the body of the plate *A* and adjacent to this opening a rim or centrifugally mounted disk *E* is provided. The second plate, as shown in Fig. 3, is formed with bearings *F* adapted to fit at opposite sides of the bearing *B* and receive a screw that passes through the bearings of both plates, being threaded into one of the bearings *F*. The smaller plate is also provided with a lug *G* which projects through the open



## MECHANICAL DEVICES

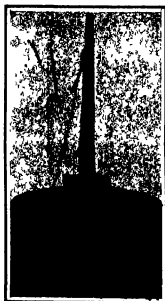


## MECHANICAL DEVICES FOR OPENING DOORS.

Fig. 3 is the plate A. The lug G is recessed to receive the cam B, and the latter is turned to press the lug G against the door and thus lock it shut. In order to allow for the movement of the smaller plate as the cam B is turned the bearing G of the larger plate is elongated as shown in the drawing. The inventor of this door securer is Mr. Charles W. Lent of Tingler, Iowa.

#### AN OIL CAN

The oil can illustrated in the accompanying engraving belongs to the class embodying a flexible bottom which is operable to cause a flow of oil. The construction here shown, however, is arranged to provide a considerably greater flow of oil than is obtainable in some of the conventional construction. This result is secured by providing three diaphragms in the can, one of which serves as the bottom of the can, while the other two are connected at the center by a siphon. In this manner an oil chamber separate from the main portion of the can is formed. In the accompanying engraving the can is shown at A with the usual nozzle H threaded into the upper end. Fitted into the lower end of the can is a retaining ring C which has extending flanges at the upper and lower ends and is also bent outwardly at the lower end to fit against a shoulder formed in the can body. The diaphragm D and E bear against the flanges of the retaining ring. The two diaphragms D and E are connected at the center by the siphon G. The diaphragm or bottom F is soldered fast to the can body. An oil chamber is thus formed between diaphragms F and E. In operation when the bottom of the can is pressed inward it drives the oil from the oil chamber with greater pressure than would be the case if the entire can body formed a single oil vessel. At the same time



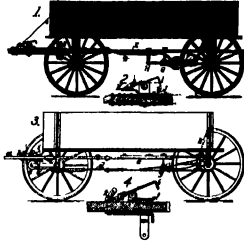
TRIPLE-BOTTOMED OIL CAN.

the other two diaphragms yield as well, thus effecting a large discharge of oil. Mr. Frederick G. Sivell of Cadott, Wis., has recently secured a patent on this improved oil can.

#### AUTOMATIC WAGON BRAKE.

Two patents have recently been issued on the subject of wagon brakes, describing a form of brake for use on carriages and wagons, that will be automatically applied when the horse is checked or presses back against the load when going down hill. The brake may also be applied by hand and can be thrown out of automatic operation whenever it is desired to back the vehicle. In order to take off the strain upon the mechanism when traveling around curves or over rough roads, a flexible connection is made between the tongue and the brake mechanism. In Fig. 1 the tongue is indicated at A. It is provided with a curved roller H mounted on a vertical axis which bears against a roller C mounted on a horizontal axis. The roller C is carried between two arms of a brake reach D which are disposed at each side of the main reach E and are free to slide longitudinally in the bounds. The brake reach D is connected at the rear end to a lever F which is connected by chains to the brake beam G. The latter carries the brake shoes that bear against the rear wheels of the vehicle. The brake beam is connected by a spring to a post H carried by the main reach E. It will be evident that when the tongue is pressed backward or when the vehicle rides forward on the tongue the brake reach will throw the lever F back ward, drawing the brake shoes into engagement with the rear wheels. A hand lever extends upward from the lever F to permit of operating the brakes manually. In order to throw the automatic mechanism out of operation the tongue A is locked to the bounds by means of a simple mechanism. It consists of a lever

J with a downwardly projecting flange adapted to engage a flanged piece J' carried by the tongue. The lever J is mounted in brackets secured to the bounds and is normally spring-pressed out of engagement with the piece J'. A cord running from the lever J to within convenient reach of the driver may be drawn upward to throw the lever J, whereupon a latch K will engage a stop piece serving to hold the lever in set position. With the ropeless J set as shown in Fig. 1 it is possible to lock the brakes against the



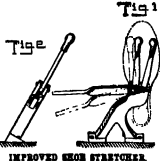
AUTOMATIC WAGON BRAKE.

wheels, while if the piece J is set with the flange at the opposite side, as shown in Fig. 2, it serves merely to lock the tongue to the bounds in such position that it cannot set the brake.

The second construction referred to is similar to that shown in Fig. 1, and corresponding parts are referred to by the same, but lower-case letters. The tongue A is connected to the brake reach D by means of a chain B which passes over a pulley C. The brake reach D is connected to a lever F which in turn is connected by means of chains to the brake beam G. The brake beam is connected by a link to the main reach E, and is held in inoperative position by a spring actuated by the brake reach D. A locking device for operating the brake is shown at H. A hand lever similar to that shown in Fig. 2 is indicated in Fig. 4 comprising a lever I mounted on the bounds, a lug J mounted on the tongue and a latch K. The inventor of these wagon brakes is Mr. Elton G. Dolan of Starkboro, Vt.

#### SHOES ARE INVENTIONS

INVENTORS SHOW STRUTTERS.—The shoe strutter illustrated herewith is so arranged that it may be adjusted for stretching shoes of different sizes and shapes, and for applying the pressure at any point desired so as to stretch the shoe in a comfortable fit. The strutter is provided with a stationary base, formed with an arm at its upper end, which terminates in a knob. Fulcrum is in the base on



IMPROVED SHOE STRUTTER.

is a ball-crank lever, one arm of which is also provided with a knob, mating that of the fixed arm. By depressing the ball-crank lever, the knob will be forced apart, stretching the shoe at the points of contact. These knobs are removable, and are provided at one side rounded and the other projecting. Each knob also has a square tapered opening adapted to fit the arm of the shoe strutter. The knobs may readily be applied, either with the projecting portion bearing against the shoe, or with the rounded portion, as desired.

ROCKING ATTACHMENT FOR ROCKING CHAIRS.—An inventor has recently secured a patent on a device for the rocking of chairs, without placing the feet on the floor. The particular advantage of this scheme is that a slight movement of the feet will cause the chair to rock. Fulcrum is to the rockers are a pair of levers



ROCKING CHAIR ATTACHMENT.

fitted with rollers at one end to engage the floor, at the opposite end connected by means of links to a pair of ball-crank levers forming a sort of a treadle, on which the operator's feet are supported. By pressing this treadle downward, pressure will be brought to bear on the rollers, causing the chair to rock. When desired, the mechanism may be thrown out of operation by folding the treadle up against one of the cross pieces of the chair.

#### Decorating Oriental Rugs.

Of the hundreds of thousands of dollars worth of Oriental rugs being imported annually, many of them are what is known to the profession as "washed rugs." This means that brightly colored Oriental rugs are sometimes washed with a solution of chloride of lime, a treatment which partly bleaches the colors and imparts a soft appearance to the rug. The chemical treatment is a process of washing which produces the effect of age and a peculiar sheen to the surface, which is pointed out by many dealers as a proof of superior quality. The fact is, however, that the process of washing invariably weakens and in some instances destroys the materials of the rug. The progressive effect of the chemical treatment of the rug is this: "The chloride gas contained in the chloride of lime attracts oxygen and moisture from the air, by which muriatic acid is formed. This eats away the fibers of the fabric. Sooner or later the wool and cotton in the rug become brittle, and thus weakens the warp and deteriorates the wool. When this deterioration is complete, the pile of the rug may be swept away by the ordinary process of sweeping, and the warp, which is the foundation of the rug, remains weak. It is worth to behold appear here and there, and soon the rug is worthless.

It not seldom happens that a Persian rug is too glaring in some bright hue, perhaps red, and is not salable. An unscrupulous dealer will subject the rug to the series of washings in chemically prepared water in this way he turns out a rug possessing a soft antique about the truly captivating, and finds a ready purchaser for the deteriorated floor covering.

#### A New Comet Discovered in South Africa.

A new comet visible to the naked eye was discovered at Johannesburg in South Africa on January 14th by Isaac Newton 19 hours, 50 minutes, 38 seconds and declination minus 23 degrees, 10 minutes 24 seconds.

At the time of its discovery the comet had an hourly motion in right ascension of 10 seconds and declination of plus 6 minutes 4 seconds of arc.

The comet discovered is brighter than Venus. At Lick Observatory it was easily seen with the naked eye at noon about four days after its discovery. It was one-half degree north of it, moving northeast.

For a few nights the comet was a brilliant object in the clear southwestern sky just after sunset.

Readers of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN will hardly construe this comet with Halley's, which has been the object of constant study since September 11th, when it was sighted. The South African body is one of the two or three comets which are usually discovered every year.

Dr. Joseph K. Pogue who is in charge of the Division of Mineralogy in the U. S. National Museum, has recently described in the Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections a remarkable specimen of pyrite studded with crystals of gold and partly covered with plates of galena from the Sleetian district near Juneau, southeastern Alaska. The pyrite is in the usual form of a cube, but what is very remarkable is that there is more than one hundred and thirty well-defined crystals of metallic gold. These are also in the cubic system and from one-third to one-half buried in the pyrite, never more, and seem to have no definite relation to the crystallization of the pyrite. Similarly, crystals of galena and chalcophyllite are found on the pyrite. The structure and relation of the galena to the pyrite is of considerable scientific interest and is described in technical detail by the author. This very unusual occurrence of these minerals in crystalline juxtaposition is described by Dr. Pogue as follows: "The pyrite, which has been the object attained, constituted a deposition of crystallized gold upon its surface followed by the precipitation of a small amount of chalcophyllite which, in turn, was succeeded by the formation of galena. A further slight accretion of pyrite completed the development of the specimen."

Failure of a fly-wheel, says Professor and the Engineer, usually begins by the starting of a minute crack on the under surface of the rim at the point of greatest stress, viz. near the ends of the arms adjacent to the rim joint. The cracks gradually deepen until failure comes with a suddenness commensurate with the minute cracks are visible on an experienced eye, and careful inspection will add materially in the prevention of fly-wheel explosions.













(Continued from page 112)

lately. It has been growing brighter quite rapidly of late.

In looking for a comet one must not be too credulous, and think that the first object he sees is a comet. Many times I thought I had found the comet and could see even the tail, but it proved to be merely a star elongated by the shaking of the telescope.

Now the same manner of proceeding may be applied when the comet is not as easy to find, though it is not so desirable located as on the evening of November 17th. After the comet is bright enough so one can see its tail and head, one would not need to do so great trouble, but could systematically search a limited and definite area near it, and in a short time would be able to pick it up. But it is not expected that it will be a very conspicuous object in a small telescope before the close of winter or early spring. In the meantime the ambitious amateur astronomer can satisfy his interest by studying it in this manner.

As an aid to those who wish to try this plan, it may be observed that the evening of February 5th is favorable because of the comet's proximity to Orion. Orion is in the R. A. 0 hr 14 min, and Dec. 7 deg 5 min. The ephemeris given for February 5th follows in its location on that evening R. A. 0 hr 57 min, and Dec. 18 deg 11 min. Similarly it will be found close to Delta and  $\delta$ 2 Pleiades on February 17th, and March 5th it will be just north of  $\delta$ 2 Pleiades. The motion is much slower during February than for the two preceding months, and so its location ought to be an easy task for the evenings immediately before and after those dates.

Where the neighboring star is not as conspicuous, as in the case of Alderamin, one must study the constellation and familiarize himself with the stars in it. It still can be located the fixed star. It is often somewhat tedious, as a few weeks ago, when I tried to locate it among the many small stars in Taurus, and Orion. It is, however, a helpful study for the amateur.

I had a very gratifying and profitable study on the evening of November 17th, which was the evening of nearest approach to Omicron Pleiades, but as this was a cloudy night I decided to try the following night. I had searched but a moment or two when it appeared in view. I have seen it two or three times since November 20th, but it has never appeared so distinctly as on this evening. It is still faint, though but a few seconds of arc in size, and could be easily passed over if the observer is not careful. It looked more like a small nebula. I could not state definitely but it appeared as though it had a faint nucleus. But the most gratifying result of the amateur's study was the unmistakable motion detected as it clearly shown in the cuts. Stars A and B were about twenty minutes of arc apart. The amount of motion was determined accurately with the 4-inch power, and the comet is still too dim to use the higher powers. I have had no further opportunity as yet to pursue this phase of the study but shall at the earliest possible moment. It will suggest a problem for other amateurs to solve for many other amateurs as much detail in the scrutinizing of Italy's comet as I have already had.

It is estimated that the German Empire has nearly 35,000,000 acres of forest, of which 31.9 per cent belongs to the State. German forestry on a scientific basis has resulted in raising the average yield of wood per acre from 20 cubic feet in 1820 to 45 cubic feet in 1900. During the same period it has been tripled the proportion of the sawn timber secured from the average acre cut. In 1870-80 the State raised the money returns from an average acre of forest sevenfold, yet today the forests are in better condition than ever before.

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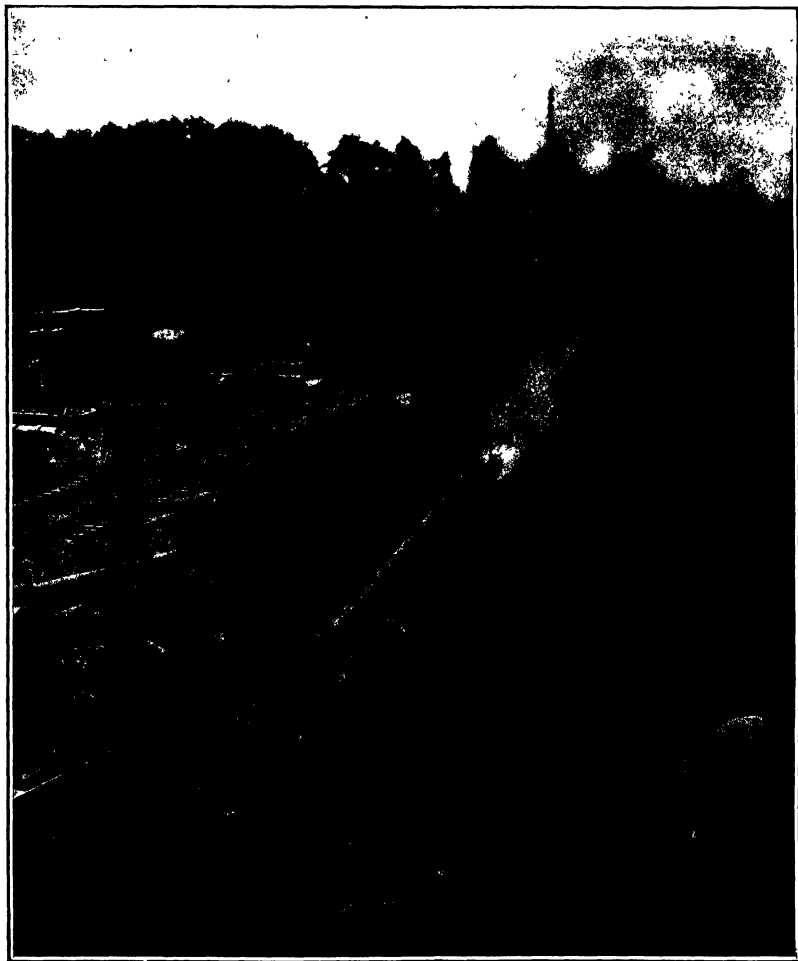
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Discharge of an 6-inch navy rifle at Indian Head Naval Proving Ground.

WHAT SMOKELESS POWDER HAS MADE POSSIBLE.—I.—[See page 181.]

## SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

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The Editor is always glad to receive for consideration illustrations of any subject of timely interest. If the photographs are sharp, the articles short, and the facts clearly stated, they will be published. Accepted articles will be paid for at regular rates.

## LESSONS OF THE PARIS FLOOD

It is rather surprising that in all the voluminous descriptions of the Paris flood, which have been published in America, there has been given no complete analysis of the hydrological conditions which have turned the usually gentle and tractable River Seine into a raging torrent, and wrought unbelievable havoc in the far famed and beautiful city of Paris. It seems unlikely that any more rainfall in the watershed of the Seine could have been sufficient to produce the present enormous flood, and it is probable that a great part, if not the major part of the flood water, is due to snow melting in the snow in the mountains and on the higher levels.

Apart from the extreme suffering and personal injuries resulting from the flood, the most serious aspect of the calamity is the disastrous effects which must surely result from the inundation of the foundations of the city, and the flooding of its labyrinth of subways and sewers by a vast volume of water of great depth pressure and velocity. The foundations, as understood by engineers and architects, that foundation material which is perfectly stable in the dry condition, may lose much, if not all, of its supporting power when it becomes saturated with water. As in the present case, the ground adjoining the foundation is full of such voids as are represented by subways, sewers, cellars and other excavations. A substructure which will remain stable in the dry conditions, may begin to flow or slide when it is saturated, in which case heavy cracks will appear in the superincumbent walls. If indeed the building be not thrown down altogether.

Furthermore the cabled reports, referring to caving streets, bursting sewers and collapsing subways, indicate that another most destructive action of the water must be actively at work. We refer to the subterranean flow of water under pressure along the face of foundations, subways, sewers and other subterranean masonry work. Where such flow occurs, as for instance along the outside of a sewer, there is liable to be a washing away and displacement of the soil or other material, and where the sewers are filled with water under hydraulic pressure, the danger of subsidence is greatly increased. It is not surprising that Paris, like any other city, has been so badly hit. Little strength to resist an outward thrust, they would be easily burst open, perished. It is not surprising that the walls had been washed away by the flow of water along their outer surface. Only when the floods have subsided and a full examination can be made, will the full measure of the damage done be ascertained, but the probabilities are that the rebuilding or substructure construction will have to be done on an enormous scale.

Unquestionably, the result of the flood will be the undertaking of public works designed to prevent any repetition of the disaster. An obvious plan would be to build a masonry retaining wall, or levee, throughout the whole length of the river, and to construct a levee above it, carrying the water to a height sufficient to prevent any future overflow. No enormous has been the volume of water that has come down, that unless the walls were raised to an enormous height, it would be necessary to increase the cross sectional area of the channel either by dredging, which is practicable, or by widening, which because of the great value of the property situated along the river, is not practicable. This purpose would seem to be out of the question.

There can be little doubt that the overflow at Paris has been greatly increased by the presence of so many masonry bridges, which have been built of heavy masonry piers that greatly reduce the area of the channel, and if the municipal engineers do not make a sufficient enlargement to accom-

pany prevent future overflows the repetition of the destruction presented by these bridges must surely come up for consideration. Judging from the reports it would seem that not only the piers, but the superstructure of the bridges themselves have suffered to dam the waters and spill them over the adjoining lands.

If the masonry structures were replaced by suspension bridges or single spans spanning the entire width of the water to wall, a great step would be taken toward the prevention of future floods. But would Paris, the beautiful, submit to the removal of so many of her architectural genius as is afforded by the present succession of picturesque stone arch bridges.

## THE NEW YORK DEEP TUNNEL WATER SUPPLY.

JUDICED from the standpoint of sound engineering and practical utility the plan to carry the new five hundred million gallon per day Catskill water supply through the length of Manhattan Island in one large deep tunnel, cut through the everlasting rock, is one of the most commendable projects ever brought before this city, and we feel that a strong protest should be made against any attempt to discredit this enterprise, which is now being made by certain more or less interested parties.

It is unfortunately a fact that in the age of sensationalism there is no more fruitful field for the pseudo-monger and screeching whizzer than that of engineering works of great magnitude, for such works deal with the stupendous forces of nature, developing great latent energies on a grand scale, and holding them for beneficent uses only by the curb and bit of technical knowledge and sound engineering judgment. It is the saddest thing in the world, by a little sagging with flattery and a large misstatement of fact, to write a sensational article (or a series of them for that matter), that will lead the lay public to believe that the project under discussion is ill conceived and fraught with big disaster. For a notable instance of this it is sufficient to refer to the agitation against the construction of the Panama Canal on the plans which are being so successfully followed. Now, the citizens of New York may rest well assured that the engineers who have staked the city's welfare and their own reputation upon the construction of a huge tunnel, from one hundred and fifty to two hundred feet in diameter, and which has not committed themselves to the scheme without the most exhaustive examination of the physical conditions, the measurements, the estimates, the durability and public convenience, the tunnel will be a great improvement over the original plan of conveying the water in multitudinous pipes laid near the surface of the ground.

The proposed tunnel, which will vary in diameter from 11 to 16 feet, will extend from Hill View Reservoir near Yonkers, below the Bronx, the Harlem River and through-out the full length of Manhattan Island, and then, below the East River, to a terminating point near the Atlantic Avenue Station of the Long Island Railroad. From this point pipe lines near the surface will extend under the Narrows to Staten Island and northeast into Brooklyn.

At the Hill View Reservoir at the north a 300-foot shaft will be sunk, from the bottom of which the great tunnel will be driven to the south. It will be constructed at sufficient depth (generally from 150 to 200 feet) to insure its lying everywhere in rock sufficiently solid to withstand, without leakage, the great internal pressure of the water, and as a further safeguard, it will be lined throughout its length with concrete. The total length of the tunnel will be seventeen and one-half miles and at 400 feet intervals construction shafts will be sunk from the surface. The job is completed these shafts will serve as up-take shafts, with connections to the surface system of pipe distribution.

The most valuable advantage of the deep tunnel method is that in Lower Manhattan, Brooklyn and Staten Island, the water will be delivered at a greater elevation by about 100 feet than would be possible if the surface pipe lines were used. The water will be available without pumping on other floors up to a height of 280 feet above tide level. This great difference is explained by the fact that the friction resistance to the flow of the water in the many relatively small surface pipes is largely eliminated by carrying the whole mass of water in one large single conduit. Other advantages are that, since the tunnel need convey no much water as thirty-foot pipes, the cost of construction and the annual charge will be about 50 per cent. less, that there will be no interference with subways and sewers, and as no large excavations or construction or subsequently for repairs, that failure by breakage will be impossible; that there will be a great volume of water at hand in any locality for the control of large conflagrations and for fire-fighting by cross-connection of the tunnel with the existing water-supply system, the latter can be safeguarded against any scarcity of supply or other serious emergency.

## OUR LATEST AND BEST REPROSCATING ENGINE BATTERED.

HERE is no denying the fact that the Reciprocating Corps of the United States Navy, with no little sentimental regard for a few of the old-time power plants, will not permit the passing from our navy of that faithful and highly developed prime mover, the multiple-expansion reciprocating, marine engine. But if, because of the ever growing efficiency of the steam turbine, the reciprocating engine is an advanced state of obsolescence, it is gratifying to realize that in the United States battleship "Delaware," the last of the reciprocating engine battleships, it has shown that in the most important matter of steam economy, it is perfectly well able to more than hold its own, a fact which is highly gratifying, both to the Bureau of Steam Engineering who made the design and to the Newport Navy Shipbuilding Company, the builders of the ship who constructed the engines.

The "Delaware," which is a sister ship to the "North Dakota," is identical with that vessel in everything but motive power. She is driven by two vertical four-cylinder, triple-expansion engines, which embody the very latest developments of the type, with piston valves, forced and exhaust steam at high speeds. Steam is supplied by water-tube boilers under forced draft, and provided with superheaters, and feed water heaters.

The contract called for the development of 50,000 maximum horsepower and a speed of 11 knots. In the trials the engines developed a mean horsepower of 50,000 over the mile, of 28,575 and a mean speed of 21.44 knots. The maximum horsepower developed for a single mile was 50,000, and the maximum speed 21.98 knots. Interest, naturally, centered on a comparison of the performance of the "Delaware" piston engines with that of the "North Dakota" turbines, and although the turbines drove the ship at higher speed, and with a smaller coal consumption per horsepower, the reciprocating engines of the "Delaware" showed a superior efficiency at all speeds in the consumption of steam. Now, while superior fuel economy may be and is often affected by the quality of the coal and the degree of skill of the fireman, and, therefore, may be credited to the advantages of the turbine engine room, the steam or the reciprocating engine, determined entirely by the efficiency of the engine, and it is on this last basis of comparison that the engines of the "Delaware" have made such a remarkably fine showing.

In the 24-hour run at 19 knots the "North Dakota" burned 295 tons of coal, with a water consumption of 15,920 pounds per horsepower per hour. On the 24-hour run at 15 knots the "Delaware" burned 165 tons with a water consumption of 22,945 pounds. On the 24-hour run at 12.18 and 21 knots respectively was 78,000 pounds, 111 tons with a water consumption of 21,085 pounds per horsepower per hour. The total water consumed per hour by the turbines of the "North Dakota" at 12.18, 18 and 21 knots respectively was 78,000 pounds, 128,000 pounds and 240,000 pounds. The respective consumption for the "Delaware" for the main engines was 51,000 pounds, 80,000 pounds, and 121,000 pounds. These figures, considered on the score of steam economy, are greatly in favor of the reciprocating engine, and they indicate that the cruising radius of the "Delaware" is considerably larger than that of the "North Dakota."

Why, then, it may be asked, is the government committing itself to the steam turbine as the drive for future battleships? The answer is, first, that the "Delaware" is a battleship, and as such has been built in later models. The number of expansion stages has been increased, and the steam economy has been improved (as shown by recent tests by the Curtis turbine both in England and America) until it equals and even exceeds the figures obtained by the best reciprocating marine engine. An even more important consideration is the fact that the steam turbine, with fewer working parts subject to breakdown, is a far more reliable engine. It can be driven all day long at the highest speed, without incurring any additional risk of failure; whereas when the reciprocating engine is forced to full speed for a short time, it is liable to break down, even in the best-constructed engines, the risk that some minor but essential part of the mechanism—a rod, a bearing, etc.—may fail and throw the whole engine out of commission.

The French Dupire were presented recently with specimens of the new aluminum alloy with which it is proposed to replace the bronze pistons in France. The 10 cylinders pistons are described as "constituting between a counter-screw and a trussor bellows, and in said to be even less subject to wear and tear than the old pistons, and to be 'very and unhandy.' The 'new' is much the same, but, of course, rather smaller, and it is expected that both, if they are adopted, will cause considerable confusion.

## ENGINEERING.

An experimental road has been constructed at Truro, which it is claimed has the advantage of being resistant, mud and dust proof, noiseless, and requiring no removal of the old surface. It consists in spilling down on the road surface an expanded steel similar to those so largely used for the reinforcement of concrete, and laying over it a 2 inch depth of ordinary road material treated with coal tar, and rolling well in.

The steel plans of the new Argentine dreadnaughts have now been passed. The ships will be called "Rivadavia" and "Moreno." They will be of 25,000 tons displacement, and carry twelve 12 inch, twelve 6-inch, and twelve 4-inch guns. The speed will be 22 knots. There will, it is said, be two funnels and two skeleton masts of the new American type. The whole of the twelve big guns will bear on either broadside. The contract for these ships has been awarded to the Fore River Works, and in view of the fact that there was keen competition for this order among the leading shipbuilders of the world, the securing of this contract is a high tribute to American shipbuilding.

A new railroad company has been organized to build a line from Tuxtla, State of Puebla, through the State of Veracruz, to the port of Nautla, says the Mexican Herald. The \$2,000,000 paid capital has all been subscribed, and Engineer Leopoldo Villarreal, a member of the board of directors, says that the line will develop a region rich in fruit, sugar, coffee, oil, etc., and that the freight on the Mexican trunk alone will pay the expenses of the new line. The line will also be operated between Papania and Misantla.

According to the United States Gazette, the first ship for the British navy, which is now being built by Vickers, Sons & Maxim, will be the largest vessel of the kind in existence. It will be over 500 feet in length and driven by two motors of 200 horse-power each, which will be capable of driving the vessel at 45 miles an hour in still air. The normal cruising power will be 30 tons, although its usual load, according to this authority, will not exceed five tons. It will be of the rigid type as this is considered to be best adapted for naval purposes.

There are over 400 miles of railway now in operation in Guatemala and various extensions are in prospect. One of these contemplates the building of a line from Zacapa on the Northern Railroad, about 100 miles from the sea, to the frontier of El Salvador, where it will connect with the railway already built, and thereby with the capital of Salvador. Much of the coffee now grown in Guatemala will be shipped to the coast by the line of which it has long been in need, and it is highly probable that the bulk of the import trade to Salvador will also be conducted along this route.

In the first annual report of the Chief of the Navy Mr. Meyer asked for only two battleships and one repair ship. Three battleships he recommends should be of the "all-big-gun" type. They will complete the squadron of eight vessels of that type. A repair ship is extremely desirable, in order that the fleet may be made more self-sustaining. Mr. Meyer favors the building of practically all the new vessels under contract with private shipbuilding concerns, not only because these industries should be fostered, but also because the construction is more economical when done by private concerns than at the government navy yards.

There is a bill before Congress providing for a bond issue of \$20,000,000 for work which is being done by new under construction and contemplated by the United States Reclamation Service. A complete description of this noble project for bringing under cultivation arid and unproductive lands, and for the use of the Middle West Number of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN of December 11th, 1909. It is expected that by the close of the next year about two million acres will have been reclaimed at a cost of \$70,000,000. When the system is completed some thirty million acres will have been recovered and opened for settlement.

We have received the report of the Public Service Commission of the First District of the State of New York, which contains some interesting facts. The number of accidents in street and steam railroads within the city of New York was 54,481 in 1904, while in 1909 the number was reduced to 33,616. The number of persons killed from street cars and trolleys was an encouraging decrease. The service rendered by the transportation companies is now better than ever before judged in proportion to the physical conditions and the volume of travel. The report was also to the members of the Commission. The maintenance of service is continued a much longer period than heretofore, and the rush-travel service has been improved. The matter of adequate service for the city is being considered, which is a necessary measure, especially in view of the fact that the population must be served. Fully one-third of all the passengers traveling in one direction during the day are carried in two hours out of the 24 hours.

## ELECTRICITY.

The United Improvement Association of Boston is urging the electrification of Boston railroad terminals. It is considered very probable that the matter will be taken up by the Massachusetts Legislature. A rough estimate of the cost of electrifying the main line and suburban lines is placed at between \$50,000,000 and \$70,000,000.

The Fifth Annual Electrical Show, which was held in Chicago from January 15th to 25th was unusual for a collection of domestic exhibits. The show where the exhibition was held was roofed with a canopy of tin and ribbons which were lighted up by means of two batteries of searchlights. The colored lights thrown on the gold and silver tinzel produced an extraordinary splendid effect.

Electric power is furnished to Helsingborg, Denmark, from Sweden by means of a cable which runs under the narrow sea separating the two countries. The power is generated at a 300 foot fall of the Laga River in Sweden and is conducted to the coast by means of a cable, where it connects with a submarine cable three miles long. The transmission of power by means of a submarine cable is quite unusual.

A demonstration of the use of electricity as an anesthetic was recently made at Hartford, Conn., where a patient was thus anesthetized while four frozen toes were removed from his foot. For the electrodes two zinc plates were used, one applied to the foot and the other to the ankle. During the operation the patient, who was blindfolded so that he would not witness the work of the surgeons felt no pain and chatted and talked in a natural manner. When the operation was over he experienced no after effects.

From time to time estimates of the power of a lightning discharge are published which would give one the idea that every discharge represents an enormous current. On this point Prof. Elihu Thompson, lecturer at Princeton University on "Atmospheric Electricity," recently stated that "we must, however, be careful not to exaggerate either the current or the potential present in a lightning flash. The current is a flash, may at times be only a few amperes or may in a heavier discharge reach perhaps hundreds or thousands of amperes. It is doubtful if the potential much exceeds that of a static spark, that is, a few millions of volts. It is probable that small local breakdowns start the disruptive process which then extends through miles of length."

Following the recent attack on amateur wireless telegraphy, the operators, which has resulted in the presenting of a bill before Congress to limit their activities, the amateurs are banding themselves together to resist any action which would interfere with their liberties. They claim that any operator who can pick up a message from a distant set of signals sent at the same time the one which he wishes to hear as each operator has his own characteristic method of sending a message which is as easily recognized as the voice of one man in a crowd. Also that if the professionals care to go to the expense of installing the necessary apparatus they can cut out all the signals except those they wish to receive. While there are many thousands of amateur stations in this country very few of them are capable of transmitting a message more than a few miles and hence the amateur trouble is not to be feared by the professionals. The trouble is not only by the sending of the few stations which can transmit to over a hundred or two hundred miles.

The new Regner and Holmstrom microphone transmitter was lately given a test on various long distances starting from Stockholm. Conversation could be heard at a distance of 100 miles, which is an exceptionally long distance for telephones on the continent, or about 1,200 miles. The transmitter is based on the use of a light steel cylinder or flat box placed between the diaphragm and the carbon granules, so as to press with the flat bottom of the cylinder on a large surface of the grains. It will carry as high a current as any amplifier and is thus exceptionally strong. The tones were carried out by 1,200 miles. The test was administered by using a loop which passed through a distant city and then returned to Stockholm and to a subscriber's instrument. Switching in the old transmitter and the new one at will was accomplished so as to be heard by the subscriber. It need not be heard on the standard system, but it could be well heard when the new transmitter was used on lines such as Stockholm Helsingborg and return, or 120 miles. Two miles were also made between Stockholm and Berlin, and at this distance 700 miles, speech was as clear as on 100 miles of line on the standard system. Good results were had between the city and country, 800 miles, after which the line was made with Paris (1,300 miles) via Frankfurt and Hamburg. A local line leading from Stockholm to Ronsdale (280 miles) was added to this, making 1,710 miles. It also speaks much from Sundsvall to Paris could be well heard.

## SCIENCE.

During the month of January, 1910, four comets were at one time in the heavens. The first of these is Italy's comet, the second Winnecke's, rediscovered at the Observatory de la Plata on October 31st by Pons, the third, the comet of 1892, and the fourth, the comet of 1893.

The Austrian Ministry of Public Works is trying to settle upon a place where radium may be sold, and the price to be charged. The question came up when a quantity of one shipment of radium was found to contain no more than one gramme of radium. The price of this small quantity has been fixed at 380 crowns (\$77.14) a milligramme. Those who control plate purchasing radium may have their attention called to the Ministry of Public Works in order to receive information as to quantities and current prices of radium.

Dr. H. G. Ashton was presented with the Perkin medal at a recent meeting of the Chemical Club. In presenting the medal Prof. C. F. Chandler traced the history of the decoration and told how it had been conferred upon Sir William H. Perkin, Dr. J. B. Francis Horrocks, and Dr. Arno Behr. Dr. Ashton received the medal for discovering entirely new materials suitable for many purposes and now indispensable to the world. The substances with which Dr. Ashton's name is associated are the aniline dyes, azo dyes, azo-graphic, and cyaninated dye.

The New York Aquarium had a greater number of visitors during the year 1909 than ever before, the attendance being 3,903,501, an average of 10,417 a day. These figures show that the Aquarium has a great patronage by the public than all the other museums of the city including the Zoological Park combined, and 1,800,000 more, for the same period than the New York Hippodrome, which has probably the largest attendance of any theater in the city. These figures are unequalled by those of any other museum in the world of which statistics are available.

The first spectroscopic observations of Italy's comet, made at Mendota by Deslandres and Deslandres, reveal fairly marked discontinuities in the spectrum of the comet. The faint continuous spectrum is crossed by distinctly stronger lines, especially in the ultraviolet region. On December 19th, the comet showed nearly circular nucleus from which extended two curved rays of feeble brilliancy, but distinct, and resembling in form the antennae of an insect or the prongs of a pitchfork. The comet was observed on January 1st, and it appeared scarcely possible to attribute them solely to the repulsive force of the sun. On the following day these appendages were no longer visible. It is probable that the comet will be observed to be diminished. These first observations show that the comet is already sublimating and that the light is due partly to incandescent gases.

An asteroid, which appears to be a previously unrecorded number of the family, has been discovered by Bolin of the Paris Observatory. In examining a photograph made on October 19th Bolin observed a faint Hoor trace. As the star images on the plate were perfectly round and sharp, it was evident that the trace was either a defect in the photograph or the impression made by a planet. In order to verify the observation, another photograph of the same part of the sky was made on October 25th. The second plate showed the trace, a little to the southwest of its former position. It was, therefore, certainly due to an asteroid, which appeared to be of the eleventh magnitude. The discovery was immediately reported to the astronomical bureau of Kiel, where the asteroid was provisionally designated by the symbol 1809 J D. Since the remarkable discoveries made by the Hoor brothers the search for asteroids has been carried on almost exclusively by German and American astronomers.

The French Journal Le Radium describes a long series of experiments made by Blane, of Rome, in regard to the presence of thorium in various earths and rocks. The presence of thorium was found in all the minerals of the weight of the mineral, were as follows: Roman vegetable earth, 14.6, granite from the Vesuvius Mountains, 20.7, granite from Lake Maggiore, 21.4, various kinds of granite, 21.0 to 21.8. The experiments of July relating to the rocks of the St. Gothard tunnel, gave the following quantities of thorium (in milligrams) 5.10 in the weathered sedimentary rocks, 11.10 in the crystalline rocks, 11.10 in the granite and gneiss of the Finsteraarhorn, but only found also similar quantities of uranium and about 1.50 milligrams as much radium. The inference is that thorium is present in all the rocks, in all the minerals, etc., and it appears not unlikely that with the aid of sufficiently exact methods, it would be found in all substances. Blane has calculated the quantity of heat dissipated by the thorium in the rocks, and has found that it is twice as great as the heat produced by the elements of the uranium-radium family in the igneous rocks which were examined by Strutt. Hence it appears that thorium may play a considerable part in the radioactivity of the earth.

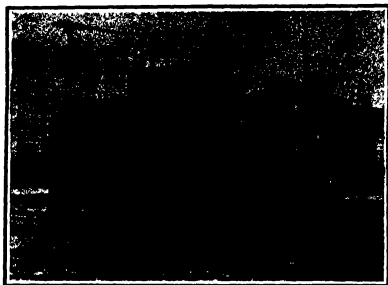
# A NEW STORAGE BATTERY STREET CAR

ANOTHER EDISON INVENTION.

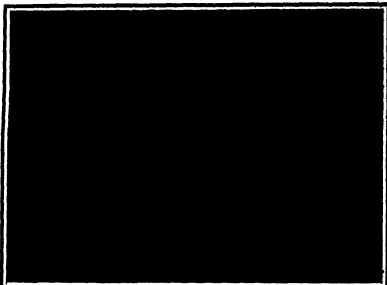
The announcement was made about nine years ago that Thomas A. Edison would soon place on the market a storage battery that would be much lighter and of greater capacity than the usual battery and provided with positive and negative elements that would not deteriorate because in place of an acid an alkali would be used for the electrolyte. Much was promised

showed no serious effect when rapidly discharged, and no damage resulted from overcharging. Shortly after the batteries were placed on the market it was found that the graphite became oxidized and interfered with the output. After considerable research it was discovered that chemically pure nickel could be substituted for the graphite and would not become oxidized in use

one use. They had to be about the size of a lead pellet, namely, quarter of an inch in diameter and five inches long, with the sides finely perforated. A machine was eventually built which made the tubes out of perforated nickel ribbon. The ribbon was wound spirally with the edges of the coils interlocked and then coiled together during the coiling process. A vast



The car weighs but five tons complete and its construction represents a radical departure from common practice



Interior of the car with the seats raised to show the batteries placed in the steel girders.

## A NEW STORAGE BATTERY STREET CAR.

for this battery, and a year or two later it appeared. The positive element consisted of nickel oxide interspersed with layers of graphite and packed in perforated nickel tubes, while the negative element consisted of iron oxide and the electrolyte was potassium hydrate. Both elements were supported in nickelled steel grids. The battery weighed about half that of the usual storage battery of the same capacity. It

but soon another difficulty developed. The nickel was packed in tubes of square cross section and these tubes would buckle or bulge outward, permitting the powdered nickel oxide to filter down over the pure nickel layers and insulate them. Then it was determined that a round tube would have to be used which would withstand the pressure of the nickel oxide. The problem of producing such tubes economically was a seri-

ous amount of money was spent in solving this one problem of the battery.

Shortly after the batteries were first put on the market they were withdrawn on account of the defects above enumerated, and about two years ago when the battery was finally completed in its present form a large number were sent out to be tested on auto-

(Continued on page 132.)

# ARTIFICIAL PRODUCTION OF THE VOICE

BY JACQUES BOYER

Dr. Marage has succeeded in demonstrating, by numerous experiments, that the voice results from an intermittent vibration of the larynx and the air with it is reinforced by the resonance of the mouth and other cavities situated above the larynx. In a recent communication to the Paris Academy of Sciences, Dr. Marage supplements this demonstration by proving that the larynx alone suffices for the production of these vibrations.

In the first of these later experiments, performed on a living person Marage succeeded in nullifying the action of the vocal cavity by filling the mouth with "steatite," a substance which is used by dentists for obtaining impressions of the mouth. The steatite which filled the mouth was thus suppressed, the five laryngeal vowel sounds OO, O, Ah, Ay, and Ee, were articulated distinctly by the larynx alone.

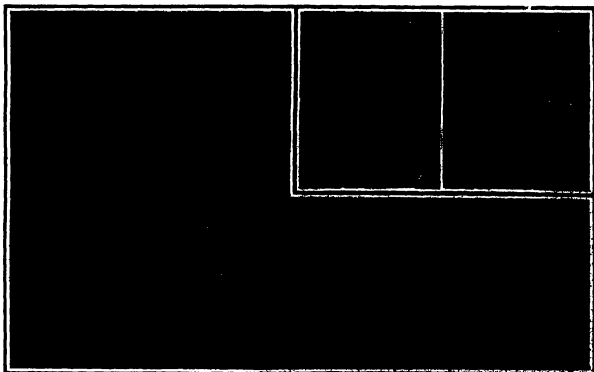
The investigation was continued by endeavoring to produce vocal sounds

from a larynx detached from the body. Muller had already experimented with the dead and isolated larynx, but the sounds which he obtained were quite different from those of the living larynx, and he stretched the vocal cords by applying forces much greater than the muscles of the larynx can exert. These forces, which in some cases exceeded a weight of 24 pounds, would certainly have torn out the ary-

noid cartilages of a living human larynx. Hence the conditions of Muller's experiments were abnormal.

Marage employed, in his experiments, the larynx of the dog. In order to spare the animal needless suffering, morphine was first administered hypodermically and, three hours later, the dog was put under the influence of chloroform, and the larynx, with five or six rings of the trachea, was excised. A rubber

tube of the diameter of the trachea was then connected with the larynx by means of a short tube of thin glass, so that a current of air could be forced through the excised larynx. The pressure of the air was measured with a very sensitive metallic manometer graduated in millimeters of water pressure. The compressed air was stored in a rubber bag similar to those which are employed for inhalations of oxygen, and was kept at the temperature of 84.5 deg. F. The number of the larynx were stimulated by the contact of a small platinum coil, which was connected by a storage battery and the sounds produced were



ARTIFICIAL PRODUCTION OF THE VOICE.

The left hand and right hand small engravings illustrate, respectively, the force exerted by the larynx in emitting a deep and a high note.

## WHAT SMOKELESS POWDER HAS MADE POSSIBLE.—I.

BY ROBERT G. SKERRETT

Except for saluting purposes, where smoke making is a factor in the exercise, smokeless powder has supplanted the older propellants.

Our biggest battleships could not be given their present powerful armaments had not smokeless powder made it possible to add to the destructive force of our guns while calling for much less weight per unit of energy than formerly.

Smokeless powder was first generally used in the French navy at the time of the development of rapid fire guns to repel the swift torpedo boat. The use of smoky gun powder in those weapons would have blasted the defensive vessel to a cloud and have given a greater chance of success for the torpedo boat. Thus, a military necessity demanded the change. Once developed, however, smokeless powder became the stepping stone to a revolution in ordnance engineering. This was due in the main to the difference between the physical actions of the old and the new propellants.

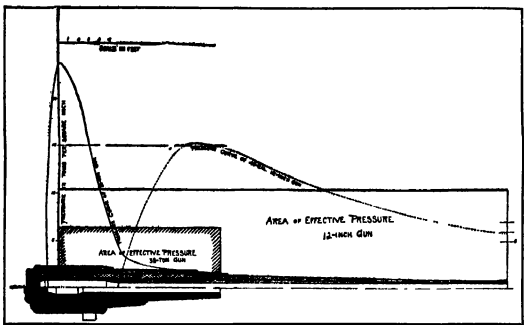
Black gun powder has a very dignified antiquity. It is a mechanical mixture of sulphur, charcoal, and sulphur. Smokeless powder, on the other hand, is a chemical combination in which the atoms bear a different and a far more intimate relation to one another. Common gun powder is a violent explosive and generates its gases with great suddenness. Its grains, however, when burned in a confined space are only imperfectly consumed, and large volumes of smoke are generated. When used in guns the products of this combustion give about 40 per cent of propelling gases. These propulsive gases have the double burden of moving the shell and this inert mass of smoke and burned grains.

Prior to our adoption of smokeless powder, the charge was about half the weight of the projectile—double the quantity of smokeless powder required to give the same ballistic results. Black powder exerts a very great and disproportionate stress upon the breech of the gun. Thence toward the muzzle, the pressure drops suddenly—especially if the grains be small and the mass thus easily ignited. Our diagram shows graphically the quickness with which the highest pressures are developed and the rapid way in

middle of these units as that as the consuming flame reduced the outer surface the burning area of the hole was increased, maintaining thus a relative balance of tension and giving a more regular and gradual

dealing with the briefest fractions of a second of time, but measurable intervals that mean everything in the ordnance engineer.

Higher velocities and better ballistics followed. But



Comparison of construction, powder pressures, etc., of the old Armstrong and the latest 12-inch navy gun.

generation of gas. For a time, this answered. But the gun grew, and the exposed surfaces of the greater powder charge required offered too large an initial burning area, and dangerously high and sudden pressures were produced at the breech of the weapon.

There was actually more smoke than before, the bore of the guns were quickly fouled and there still remained a wasteful percentage of unburned grains. Such was the state of the art in this country when we went to war with Spain.



Weight of gun, 60 tons; Weight of shell, 100 pounds; Powder charge, 80 pounds; Muzzle velocity, 2,500 feet per second; Muzzle energy, 25,000 foot-tons.

THE NEW 12-INCH, 45-CALIBER GUN NOW UNDERGOING TEST FOR THE NAVY.

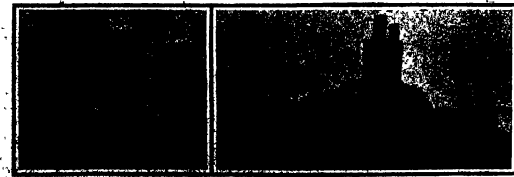
which they fall—the average propulsive force being but a low percentage of the maximum power evolved. It is this average pressure that sends the shot on its destructive errand, and the aim of the ordnance engineer is to have this reasonably high while lowering the crest of the curve of maximum energy.

The first remedy tried was in the form of larger grains, so that, for a given weight of charge, the superficial area at once exposed to the flame should be reduced—the powder instead of going off with a single flash burned more slowly, and the propelling force was better distributed along the bore of the gun. This method led to the making of prismatic grains up to an inch and a half in diameter—regularly and carefully formed. Next, a hole was bored through the

bore of the grain, a big percentage of the grain was blown out of the gun unconsumed. Advance for a time was blocked until the powder makers evolved a "slow burning" propellant by changing the proportions of some of the ingredients. The purpose of sulphur is to lower the ignition temperature of the powder, and by lessening this element inflammation was momentarily retarded. By increasing the charcoal a greater percentage of moisture was added, and that served as a slowing-up agent in the general combustion of the mixture. The powder thus developed was called "cocoa" because of its color—the consequence of the under-charred charcoal used. In this country, we later called it "brown prismatic." The terms "quick" or "slow burning" are merely relative. In other cases we are

Smokeless powder has quite reversed the task of the ordnance engineer. His aim now is to provide an explosive which can be made to suit the gun rather than to fashion the weapon to meet the violent vagaries of the older propellants. Our present smokeless powder generates a relatively low regular, and progressive pressure from the instant of ignition up to the time the shot leaves the muzzle of the gun with its usual muzzle velocity. The curve of our big 12-inch rifle shows how much nearer the powder makers have come to solving the problem, but much patient experimenting has yet to be done before the ideal is measurably approached.

The operative cycle of a shot moving along the bore of a gun is exactly opposite to that of a train of cars gaining full speed from a standstill. In the latter case, the engineer knows that he would endanger his car plunges—even if he did no other damage—if he opened wide the throttle at the instant of starting. So he begins by just acquiring headway and then gradually increases the motive energy until the train has reached full speed—a matter of quite several minutes for a fast train and during a distance of a mile or two. The ordnance engineer, on the other hand, can give to his projectile only a flying start by suddenly applying a great and violent pressure, and enough of this propulsive force must follow the shot in the muzzle in order to give the desired maximum velocity. This must be accomplished within a period of not more than one-hundredth of a second of time and in our biggest guns, while the shot travels a distance not more than fifty feet. A few figures will enable us to realize better the task set the ordnance engineer and



THE FIRST REMEDY TRIED WAS IN THE FORM OF LARGER GRAINS, SO THAT, FOR A GIVEN WEIGHT OF CHARGE, THE SUPERFICIAL AREA AT ONCE EXPOSED TO THE FLAME SHOULD BE REDUCED—THE POWDER INSTEAD OF GOING OFF WITH A SINGLE FLASH BURNED MORE SLOWLY, AND THE PROPELLING FORCE WAS BETTER DISTRIBUTED ALONG THE BORE OF THE GUN. THIS METHOD LED TO THE MAKING OF PRISMATIC GRAINS UP TO AN INCH AND A HALF IN DIAMETER—REGULARLY AND CAREFULLY FORMED. NEXT, A HOLE WAS BORED THROUGH THE

the part that smokeless powder plays in the result when measured by the power to strike an appalling blow. The shell leaves the muzzle of one of our latest 15-in. 45-caliber rifles, with a velocity of 2,650 feet a second—13.12 miles a second—and has a striking force at that instant equal to a blow of 2,532 foot tons! A fast excess of 250 tons, thundering along at the rapid rate of 36.34 miles an hour in collision with a standing object, would be equal to a blow of exactly corresponding magnitude. The gun's muzzle weighs but 870 pounds and the charge of powder 335 pounds—such is the power concentrated in our smokeless propellant. And yet it is only a striking force in the development of this stupendous energy that the weapon is actually less hard than the older 12½-in. rifle with which in the diagram while the present-day gun has far more military value.

Referring to our diagram we see how far smokeless powder has made it possible to improve upon the performance of the Armstrong gun of the "lightning." That gun fired a shell of 920 pounds, used a charge of 130 pounds of black powder and gave to its shot a muzzle velocity of 1,400 feet a second. At the instant the shot left the gun it had a striking force of 10,390 foot tons. Today our big 12½-in. rifle weighing but forty-four per cent more than the older weapon, can send their 570-pound armor-piercing shell on an errand of destruction with an initial speed of nearly 2,600 feet a second, and with a striking force nearly five times as great as that of the Armstrong gun. The 15-in. gun with a powder charge scarcely more than a third of that now used, developed the stupendous momentum of its projectile with a striking force in its powder chamber. Our big "twines"—using 765 pounds of smokeless powder—have a maximum chamber pressure in service of not more than 16 tons. This means a reduction of stress upon the breech of the weapon of quite 55 per cent and yet yielding an average propulsive pressure of something more than 60 per cent greater, all because the present powder burns slower and obeys its driving power a longer period during the passage of the shell along the bore of the rifle. It is the difference between the stroke of a single, sudden, violent impulse and the better-sustained push by which an object may be set in motion and accelerated.

Barely these are truly astonishing strides, and yet so unobtrusively have they been made from year to year that but few are aware of the progress and their significance in strengthening our powers of defense and of retaliation. Such are the achievements of today! What may we not expect to-morrow? (To be continued.)

#### A NEW UNITED STATES NAVAL GUN OF GREAT POWER

Our illustration of the new naval 14½-in. gun cannot fail to excite widespread interest among those who are following the trend of development in the United States navy. The place was constructed at the Midvale Works from plans of the Bureau of Ordnance, and received its finishing touches at the naval gun shops at Washington. It is now undergoing tests at the Indian Head Proving Ground which are giving much satisfaction to the officers of the Bureau. There seems to be a growing conviction among some of the leading naval powers that, in view of the fact that future engagements will be fought at long ranges at which the remaining energy increases greatly with an increase in the size of the gun, future dreadnoughts will be armed with a piece of larger caliber than twelve inches. Great Britain is building, if she has not already completed, a 13½-in. gun, and our 14½-in. piece has been ordered. It is being built and treated, with a view to putting our navy in a position to arm future dreadnoughts entirely with the 14½-in. if it should be deemed desirable to do so.

The new weapon, which is 35 feet 6 inches in length (that is to say its length will be 45 times the bore), measures over all 53 feet 8½ inches, and it weighs 63 tons. It fires a projectile of 1,400 pounds weight with a charge of 365 pounds of smokeless powder and will shoot the muzzle velocity of the gun is a velocity of 2,600 feet per second and an energy of 65,687 foot-tons. It will be noticed that the velocity is 350 feet a second less than that of our latest 15-in. gun, but that because of the heavier shell it is actually greater. The lower velocity has the great advantage that the pressures and temperatures in the bore of the gun will be low and therefore the erosion will be reduced and the life of the gun before it begins to be badly worn away as to destroy the accuracy will be considerably longer. The method of construction is generally similar to that shown in the accompanying article entitled "What Smokeless Powder Has Made Possible," and except that the powder pressure is lower, the curve of pressure from the powder chamber to the muzzle is approximately the same for the two pieces.

The telescope which is being installed in the Transatlantic Observatory will be the second largest in the British Empire. It will be 76 feet long and have an aperture 36 inches in diameter.

#### The Rockefeller Institute's Work on Infantile Paralysis

BY ALBERT C. COSSA, M.D.

The psychic machinery in our body is made up of two systems—the cerebrospinal and the sympathetic, the latter does not here concern us. The cerebrospinal system is made up of the brain, the spinal cord and the nerves, which are derived from the brain and extend thence to the muscles, the skin, and the utermost tissue. The basis of this nervous system is the neurone, composed of a cell body (gray matter), and its dendrites or fibers (white matter) which emanate from the cell like the roots of a tree. The neurones are sensory and motor, and infantile paralysis is an affection of the motor neurone. The whole is like a telegraph system. The fibers (which make up the nerves) are the telegraph wires, the cell bodies (as grouped in ganglia) are the telegraph stations, communicating by their fibers with the extremities, with one another, and with the main office in the brain cortex.

The sensory ganglia in the spinal cord, to which sensations are telegraphed from the surface of the body, are in the posterior "horns," thence the sensations are transmitted to the brain cortex, from which in return commands are sent down through the motor ganglia, in the anterior horns of the spinal cord to the muscles working the affected area. Infantile paralysis is known also to physicians as anterior poliomyelitis (*polio* gray, *myelitis*, marrow—a term applied no doubt when the gray matter was erroneously supposed to be marrow, and *itis*, inflammation). This disease is so named because the anterior horns in the spinal cord—those parts of the cord which are concerned in muscular movements and development, and such a lesion means paralysis, atrophy or degeneration in the particular muscles innervated from the part of the cord involved.

Infantile paralysis is generally an acute disease, and by far the greatest sufferers from it are little children from one to five years of age. Apart from the pathos in this circumstance, we would infer (though not, of course, conclusively) the infectious nature of this form of paralysis. For almost all the acute infectious—measles, scarlet fever, whooping cough, and the like—are generally diseases of child hood, adults and the aged seldom contract them. If they have once contracted them in childhood, because of their immunity to infection they are spared a second attack. In the case of the disease under consideration, however, the immunity upon the individual. Another reason for inferring infectivity in poliomyelitis is its frequently epidemic character, as in the summer of 1907, when the whole Atlantic seaboard was swept and again in the summer of 1909, when the disease appeared in New York and spread widely throughout the United States and Europe. In perhaps a score of cases that have been studied physicians have concluded that to be infectious, though they could not prove this, in the remaining one-third the disease has been attributed to bacteria, to auto-infectious material, and to unknown changes into the spinal blood vessels. In the light of our present knowledge, however, it is safe to consider that such falls fevers and hemorrhages have not been sensitive of the poliomyelitis but rather predisposing factors making the tissues concerned vulnerable to the causal or specific virus.

The motor neurone in this paralysis becomes smaller, then they degenerate, finally, and finally shrivel up, the fibers emanating from them degenerate and atrophy. This process may go on to complete destruction of these precious elements, or it may be arrested at any stage. If arrested, repair may ensue and the cells and their fibers return fairly well their normal condition and function. If, unfortunately, the inflammation goes on, the size and shape of the spinal cord is altered, the nerves are contracted and changed, and in consequence of this the muscles concerned become paralyzed, atrophic, and incapable of their proper function. When recovery does take place these muscles are apt to remain small, perished and incapable of their normal function. Little patients also retarded bone growth deformity of the joints, sluggish circulation, and impaired nutrition. Such a child begins and ending in a high fever, temperature and all the symptoms accompanying a fever; there is a pain in the back and limbs; suddenly there supervenes paralysis, generally in the lower limbs. A child may be put to bed suddenly quite healthy, and may in the early morning manifest these sufferings. The outlook is generally good as to life itself, yet the severity and fatality of the disease, as is in all infectious diseases, widely and strikingly in all, poliomyelitis is sufficiently disastrous to give medical men much anxiety, as it should give the community in general grave concern.

As intimated, the infectious nature of poliomyelitis has been rather assumed than proved; it would now seem that complete demonstration of infectivity will presently be forthcoming. We may then entertain the confident hope of a preventive and remedial agent

against infantile paralysis akin to that which has practically eliminated smallpox from human experience. Early in 1909 two German experimenters, Landsteiner and Popowitsch, succeeded in isolating two monkeys with the spinal cords taken from two fatal human cases of poliomyelitis. In both the monkeys lesions of the spinal cord were on autopsy found similar to those in man.

In September of 1909 Dr. Simon Flexner and his colleague, Dr. Paul A. Lewis, of the Rockefeller Institute, in New York city, obtained the cords of two children that had died of poliomyelitis, and from them isolated which cords the anterior horns exhibited the characteristic gross and microscopic appearance. Transfusion was then made to monkeys. After eleven weeks incubation, inoculation was made in the brain of these animals through a small trephine opening. The injected material consisted first of emulsions in salt solution of the two human cords; and later of emulsions of the spinal cords of the monkeys that had developed paralysis after injection of the first emulsion, that from the human cords. The spinal cords in six series of monkeys thus inoculated showed without exception lesions similar to those of human poliomyelitis. Now, a single successful inoculation of spinal cord tissue resulting in experimental poliomyelitis could not establish the scientific case here set forth, because the result might have been due to a transferred toxic body, but in this case the transfer of spinal cord tissue, the transfer of the active agency of epidemic infantile paralysis was regularly successful. In one series of seven monkeys the first inoculation was of human virus, the other monkeys were inoculated with spinal cord tissue from each with the virus from the cord or the cortex of its predecessor, the disease regularly resulting. Hence, by these and other equally conclusive experiments, one cannot doubt the infectious nature of poliomyelitis.

Again, later injections were made, not only in the brain of monkeys but also into the abdominal cavity, the blood vessels, into nerve substance (as in the neck), and into the spinal cord. The first force, be affirmed, that still other avenues of infection (as the skin, the organs of respiration or the digestive tract) do not exist, for the entrance of the virus into the central nervous system.

But now as to the nature of this virus which is responsible for infantile paralysis. It is at present in visible under the microscope. Flexner and Lewis after most exhaustive search "yet have not ascertained" neither a bacterium nor protozoan. However, certain have been isolated as pathogenic of most of the infectious diseases. The virus of infantile paralysis—its infecting agent—has been isolated from almost all smallpox, it belongs to the class of the minute and filterable viruses that have thus far not been demonstrated with certainty. Nevertheless, although the smallpox virus still remains possible to us, for a century past a vaccine has been evolved from it which we have practically banished this dreadful disease from the face of the earth, there should then be no reason to suppose why a vaccine or an immunizing agent against poliomyelitis should not now in good time be forthcoming.

By the way, did the reader note in this paper the phrase "after other anasthesia?" It means that the monkeys suffered no torture during these experiments, so benevolent in their trend for humankind. Let us congratulate ourselves that infantile paralysis is another added to the long list of dreadful diseases for which a remedy is being found through animal experimentation, which could otherwise never have been evolved.

#### An Electro-pneumatic Conveyer System for Libraries

An electro-pneumatic system is used in the Berlin royal library for carrying out the distribution of books to the readers. Upon this system the reader fills out a blank containing the name of the desired book, and upon this blank an employee writes an exact indication of the place where such volume is to be found. The bulletin is then sent by pneumatic tube to the central office. This office is directly connected with elevators with the different stories of the building. These elevators are of small size and are operated electrically on a push-button system. Besides, there is a large elevator running through all the floors for transporting persons. The pneumatic tubes are also run from the central office to the different floors which contain the books. The employee of the central office who receives the reader's bulletin sends the same by pneumatic tube to the proper floor, and there, in the first place, either in the main reading room or any other of the rooms of the library.

The production of mercury at the Almaden mines, Spain, was 1,011,000 kilos, or 2,247 tons, in 1909. At Almaden it is being mined.

## Correspondence.

## THE GROSCOPE AND A CLOCK.

To the Editor of the Scientific American.

In regard to Mr. Baker's item in the January 31 number relating to the grooscope not maintaining its position relative to the earth, but relative to a fixed point in space, if this be true, the grooscope, operated by a small motor and set on a balanced pivot, would make an excellent timepiece, although slightly different from those in present use, make only one revolution in 24 hours. The clock would of course have to be set with the axis north and south, so the grooscope would (apparently) rotate from west to east. It could also be geared so as to denote the minutes and seconds, and would be absolutely accurate, with the exception of the slight friction which would have the effect of slowing the clock a trifle.

It occurs to me also that the same principle might be made use of in maintaining the position of astronomical telescopes, if the vibration could be overcome, instead of the mechanical, clockwork device now in use.

To anyone who has the inclination to experiment in this way, a timepiece of this character would make an interesting toy, and could be very cheaply constructed. An ordinary toy electric motor should serve the purpose of a grooscope. CARL ORVINDY  
Edmonton, Alberta.

## WHY DOES A WATCH-SPRING BREAK?

To the Editor of the Scientific American.

Why does a watch spring break when it is bent in use quite a while? If not strong enough, why did it not break at the very beginning?

Such is the question propounded by the Editors of the Scientific American.

Let us suppose a strip of iron to be fastened at one end, the other end being free. If we bend it a little and then let it go it will return to its place after vibrating a certain length of time. It may do the same again and again, when we bend it more and more until finally after being bent beyond what is called the limit of elasticity, it will be permanently deformed. Its molecules have then assumed a difficult position in regard to each other and will not return to their original position.

If we keep on bending it still more it will finally break in two at the point where the strain is greatest or where a defect may exist.

Now let us try to explain spring life. We find no deformation appreciable when we bend it beyond its strength, it snaps at once. At least it appears to be so. The probability is, however, that a permanent bending takes place at a point very near the breaking point that the difference escapes our observation entirely.

Passing to the other extreme we will take a strip of lead. There is then almost no elasticity, a very slight bending will deform the piece, but on the other hand, it will take a considerable amount of bending or twisting to break it.

So much for the immediate effects of bending or otherwise straining any given material. But now the question arises, what might be the effect of a strain not quite sufficient to produce an immediate deformation, but applied during a long time?

I can give here an example that I have often the occasion to verify. Take a piece of tin and a piece of zinc (in sheet) of the same size, bend them to some extent and fasten them. Two weeks later release them. The tin will return immediately to its former shape while the zinc will remain bent just as it was fastened.

Or take a piece of tar and put it on the table. It will keep its shape and even stand quite a pressure without deforming or breaking down. Nevertheless in the course of a few days its molecules will have yielded to such an extent that the piece of tar has not even been able to stand its own weight, and has spread over the table.

Now, what has taken place with the zinc or the tar undoubtedly occurs with the other materials within certain limits, at least in some cases. The piece of iron kept bent near the point of immediate deformation, must in a sufficient time yield and be deformed. The watch spring, or other steel spring, kept bent not quite enough to break immediately, will in time break up. The continued tension of the molecules must have a tendency to displace them, and finally causes them to yield.

We have an immense amount of information as to the immediate deformation or breaking of materials of all kinds under stresses applied at once or during a short time, but only very little concerning the effects of stresses applied during a long time. Several sensitive cables or bridge steel members have given way after years of service. The general opinion among engineers is that the breaking was due to the vibration caused by the travel over the bridges. These vibrations caused the molecules of the steel or iron

to assume a crystalline structure instead of the original fibrous disposition.

It is said that a watch spring is more liable to break during warm than during cold weather. I am very much tempted to question the correctness of that opinion. However it will be so to some extent at least.

In the first place, as a general rule the strength of all metals decreases with an increase of temperature beyond the ordinary limits to which a watch is exposed. The decrease is insignificant, but it is not so as to the expansion of volume. The diameter of the barrel changes but very little, but the spring, being very long, expands out of all proportion. In fact the increase of length of the spring is about twenty five times the increase of size of the barrel.

That is the equivalent of placing the spring in a smaller barrel and increasing its tension and liability of breakage. AMIAN GRATE  
Knoxville, Tenn.

## SAFETY IN MINES.

To the Editor of the Scientific American.

In your issue of December 4th, 1909, in an editorial discussion of the Cherry mine disaster you state "the flames reached the dust-covered pine timbers of the structure." This leads to a suggestion that the structural work in coal and other mines should not be made up of pine or other timber at all, but of iron or steel. Also, from another part of your discussion I gather that ventilating shafts should be distinct from the hoisting shafts.

In fact, the whole subject of protection to the miners should be studied out by scientific mining experts. The duty to protect the workmen rests as moral duty on the owners and operators of the mines and the moral duty is in need of legal enforcement by appropriate statutes State and Federal. The men are clearly entitled to protection, and protection would in the long run pay in dollars as well as lives.

The whole subject of protection from preventable disasters—and most of them are preventable—is as generally discovered after the event—inadequate to be made the subject of expert scientific study. The loss of life and limb due to accidents in mines, in railways and to burning factories (theater school houses and hotels) is appallingly great, the more so when much of it, it is said, is clearly avoidable. But how?

There must be emphasized that too much reliance is had on mechanical signal systems such as block signals on railways and the like. No mechanical system can obviate the need of equipment of the human watchman to supplement the mechanical system. Mechanical systems have their advantages—the advantages of automaticity. But automaticity with the aid of human intelligence and vigilance. There is too little value placed upon human life—the lives of workers, of travelers of the spectators at the play of the children in the great crowded school houses. The man who sees his loved ones start on a journey is likely never to see them again, or at best (or worse) their charred, almost unrecognizable remains. Or if they live, it is to be maimed, disfigured, crippled. Or the man himself may be stricken in his prime—the untimely victim of a lack of care or of undervaluation of human life. Or the president of the railway system—as has happened more than once in the last decade—may himself become the victim of his own neglect and may ride to death in his palatial special.

The whole matter of accidents is in a condition to vex the intelligence of the country. For one thing, there is lack of constant international inspection, day and night. There seems to be an unwarrented confidence in wood, iron and steel, a gratuitous assumption that accidents are not likely to happen. But somehow they do not seem to be taken into serious account. The means for running railways, mines and factories have the reputation of being too much out of consideration, as if they were mere "aporia" of Nature, mere chances, whereas they are the certain and inevitable and hence preventable results of well known factors. The man who sees factors of grooving structural weakness in timbers and steel, factors of over possible congruity of unfavorable circumstances, the incidental coming together of combustible elements, etc.

In hotels it must be assumed that fire are likely to happen at any or all times, and there is need of the strict vigilance of a sufficient number of trained beings to keep the whole area of danger under intelligent surveillance. Mechanical appliances should not be regarded as a substitute for these living inspectors but merely aids. For the automatic system has a certain mechanical way of getting "out of it" at the very possible time. Indeed it can be depended on to do this very thing. These observations apply to railways, mines, and factories. It is not sufficient to have a jury determine when negligence caused the accident or to say that it was due to some imperfec-

tion in the automatic signals. Prevention is the thing. Think what horrible deaths—deaths of scalding, burning, crushing, maiming—American men, women, children and babes are dying almost hourly. The sickening scene is familiar—the "looked for" accident—the mending for the nearest village or town and the "waiting away," the "shoveling up" of the mangled remains, the horrible identification of charred remains by some jewel or scrap of a shoe or fragment of apparel. Prevention is the thing. There is expert advice to take charge of the important work of saving life by preventing accidents. It would be a noble and useful work, if achieved—and it can be achieved. Railroads or railways systems should have a department with a trained corps of men to cope with these conditions out of which accidents arise. At its head a competent man, not to operate trains, but to remove the dangers of accidental death save to arise when all are bent on running the trains on schedule (as now) and no one is thinking particularly of the human lives entrusted to the railways system, these dangers would be given minute attention. The right steps are taken. There is a railway ward of the Mississippi River that has been operated for several decades, and it enjoys this unenviable distinction. The road has never caused a single human death. I have heard also of a street car line in New York that has never lost a passenger's life. This shows what is possible. If these conditions were general how much happier everybody would be. E. L. BARNARD

Follow the American Association for the Advancement of Science.  
Prairie View, Tex.

## Spherographs of Sunset's comet.

In order to determine early positions of Comet 1910 a on photographic plates, the following ephemeris has been computed by Prof. O. C. Wendell from Kohler's element, given in No. 11 583.

DATE		R.A.		Dec. Log. Lat. a	
1909, November	5	16	48	16	0.000 014
December	9.5	15	38	17	0.000 01176
January	13	15	28	18	0.000 01016
February	17	15	17	18	0.000 00856
March	21	15	6	18	0.000 00696

For more complete ephemeris see E. S. Bagnall's has computed the positions given below.

DATE		R.A.		Dec. Log. Lat. a	
1910, February	10	15	48	18	0.000 00536
February	7	15	38	18	0.000 00376
February	10	15	28	18	0.000 00216
February	13	15	17	18	0.000 00056
February	16	15	6	18	0.000 00000
February	19	15	0	18	0.000 00000

## The current Supplement.

The great bridge over the Red River in Indo-China is the subject of an article which opens the Current Supplement No. 1779. Mr. Richards explains some principles in design of friction clutches. A new valve gear for gas engines is described and illustrated. An automobile chart has been invented by Mr. Joseph J. Jones which serves the functions of a mechanical sign post. Briefly it is a revolving card which tells the driver or any one in a car exactly where he happens to be on any of the main roads of the world. Mr. Bradnash's of the "Nassau" type is published. A Letterman discusses the present state of physical chemistry in colloids. Dr. G. Hudson Huxton writes on statistics and the probability of the occurrence of modern methods of remedy. T. Cunningham writes on transformations and migrations of cells. Most of us have probably never heard of Nicole Orson, yet he was the forerunner of Copernicus. Prof. Pierre Durham does credit to his work in an appreciative article. A very exhaustive article on the Paris tunnels will be found in the Supplement, an article of peculiar interest in view of the recent inundation of the French capital.

The depth of the water in the middle of the Berlin-Neck Canal was 16 feet (4.88 feet), and the breadth at the surface in ordinary soil 13 meters (108.24 feet). In soft peaty ground it will be from 37 meters to 48 meters (121.4 to 154.6 feet). For a distance of 15 miles the bed and banks of the canal will have to be puddled with clay, the surface of the canal there being above the water level of the surrounding country. At one point the canal crosses the valley of the river by an embankment provided with a railway 1,146 meters in length. The eleven locks for the descent into the Oder Valley are begun. One of them has a fall of 9 meters (29.52 feet). The question of building a lift behind the series of locks has not yet been decided. The 27 canal bridges are all to be built of steel.

## CLEARING SNOW FROM RAILWAY TRACKS IN CANADA.

BY FRANK C. PERKINS.

The accompanying illustrations show the construction and operation of a novel cylinder snow plow designed and constructed in the Province of Ontario. When the plow of this remarkable machine is forced into a drift or cut, the snow is lifted by the shovel, which is inclined upward and moves the expeller chambers, the snow sliding along until it comes in contact with the expellers the blades of which revolve at a high speed in an upward direction. Engaging the snow the blades throw it upward and outward at a great velocity, delivering it in a distance of 50 or 60 feet on each side of the plow and making a clear cut, 11 feet in width and at a speed of 8 to 8 miles per hour in a cut 10 feet deep. The snow is elevated and thrown at so great a distance from the track the possibility of the smallest quantity ever getting into the cut again is provided. The snow does not enter the expeller chambers, and it is stated that the maximum velocity of the expeller blade at the periphery is 5,614 feet.

The accompanying illustrations are front and side views of this remarkable cylinder snow plow. In one view the snow expellers are shown in operation, in another a cut 12 feet deep is illustrated. The reader will doubtless not be impressed which wedge and apron leave on the snow. The thin end projects only 20 inches ahead of the expeller. Other illustrations show the chain track in a ten foot cut, and the machinery within the plow car, including the boiler steam pipes and engine. The expellers are directly connected with the engine shaft by means of two steel chain belts.

It is stated that each of the steel chain belts driven by the steam engine of this plow is capable of driving the expellers at a moderate speed alone, so that should one belt be disabled the plow would still be able to work at a somewhat lower rate of speed.

The plow body is of steel construction throughout, the box portion having the sides covered with wood like a box car. The roof is of similar construction, which is fire and water proof. A door is provided on each side in the middle of the car, the back end being left open for convenience in stacking the boiler. A lookout is built at the front end of the car from which point the engineers can be signalled to.

The front end of the car, entirely of steel, has three chambers, the two side ones being circular, open at the front and one side, in which the expellers revolve. These are nine feet in diameter and three feet six inches wide. Each expeller consists of a cast iron hub upon which are formed four spiral flanges, having a pitch of about fourteen feet. Riveted to these flanges are four half inch steel plates or blades twenty two inches wide, comprising a true belt upon the hub. The expellers are mounted upon each end of the shaft and overhang the pedestals the shaft extending into the circular chambers. On the middle of the shaft, which is eight inches in diameter, is keyed the sprocket wheel, which is connected with a similar wheel on the shaft of the engine by the steel chain. These four parts constitute the drive gear. The middle chamber opens to the interior of the car. On the front is constructed the nose of the plow, consisting of steel plates projecting forward to the end of the apron or shovel. It may be stated that the apron or

shovel is attached to the bottom framing, the side plates, the interior web plates, and the expeller chambers, by steel angles and plates. This apron extends forward five feet beyond the center of the expellers. The nose and shovel, being firmly riveted together, present a rigid construction to engage the snow.

This powerful cylindrical snow plow has expellers specially constructed. The cylinders are sixteen inches diameter with eighteen inch stroke and work under a steam pressure of 150 pounds per square inch, the maximum speed being two hundred revolutions per minute. They are capable of developing 750 H. P. and are placed as near as possible to the expellers

with a solution of potash waterglass. Sometimes a repetition of this process will be necessary to thoroughly fill all the pores of the stone. It is enough if the stone is saturated to a depth of about 1/4 inch. Whisk broom marks may be cleaned off by rubbing with a piece of the same stone, or by rubbing the stone, or by brushing with steel brushes. Should the solution not impregnate the stone quick enough, it must be diluted with more water. The solution should be entirely absorbed by the stone in about one minute. Whatever is left over on the surface after this time should be wiped away with a rag, as the crystals formed by the evaporation of the water would make a rubbing and cleaning of the stone necessary. A separate brush should be used for each solution, so that the reaction should begin in the pores of the stone. For larger surfaces steamers or sprinklers may be used successfully.

Through these processes any soft limestone or sandstone may be made more compact and hard. Their porosity and imperviousness will equal that of the hardest stone. After treatment they may be polished and cut. The great advantages of the soft stone—cheapness of quarrying and cutting—remain, and they can receive afterward all the prominent qualities of the harder stones.

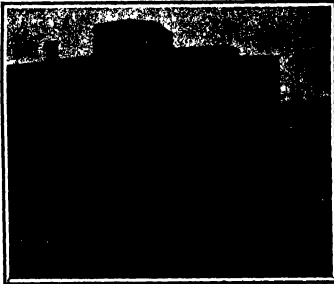
Mortar and concrete may also be hardened and compacted by these processes, so that they may be used with greater success in works calling for water-tightness, as water works, tanks, street pavements, sidewalks, artificial stone, cement blocks, etc. Monuments can also be protected by these processes from the influence of the weather.

## Process of Removing Hair from Hides.

An article in the *Leider'sche Rundschau* mentions, without describing in detail, a new process for the removal of hair from hides, in which the agents commonly employed for this purpose (lime, sodium sulphide, etc.) are replaced by "a suitable gas," which effects the removal of the hair in from two to eight hours. The process is said to be especially valuable for the preparation of colored leather and the leather in general, as the product is of very uniform grain and free from the spots which are often produced by lime and sodium sulphide. The leather is also much closer, tougher, stronger, and more flexible than leather made by the usual methods. Hides treated by the new process may be tanned with bark, extract, or chrome salts. The inventor, whose address may be obtained from the journal quoted, will furnish detailed information to persons interested.

## The Coming Aeronautic Show at Boston.

The first Aeronautic Show to be held in the United States without connection with any other exhibition, will open in Mechanics Building, Boston, Mass., on February 14th, and not on the 1st, as announced in our last issue. This show will remain open one week. The fifteen full-sized aeroplanes have already been secured, and the exhibition promises to be a representative one as far as the heavier-than-air machines are concerned. The manager can be addressed at 5 Park Square, Boston, by any experimenters having machines to exhibit.



A view showing an expeller.

to shorten the drive chain. The engine exhaust into the bottom of the smoke box of the boiler through a suitable nozzle similar to locomotive practice, creating a strong blast.

## Hardening of Soft Stone.

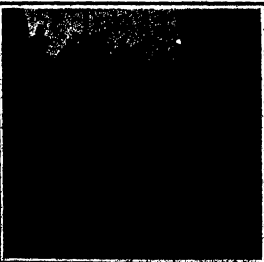
Mr. A. Kubelka of Bushovitz in Moravia has discovered a process by means of which the softest sandstone or limestone can be made hard. The process is the following: First, the surface of the stone must be thoroughly cleaned, so as to expose the pores. Any oil or grease spots must be removed with benzine or with the alcohol flame. Missing pieces must be filled up with cement mortar, using a 1:1 solution of water-glass for tempering. After the stone is thoroughly dry, it is saturated with a solution of potash or soda waterglass. In case of rain during or immediately after this operation, the stone must be again cleaned, dried, and saturated with the solution. Then follows an impregnation with molten chloride of calcium. After this impregnation rain will do no more harm, as on account of the reaction of the chloride of calcium upon the solution of waterglass, the pores of the stone will be filled with insoluble, hard silicate of lime, while the soluble silicate of lime will be decomposed and washed out by rain. Another method of Kubelka's is to saturate the stone first with a solution of sulphate of alumina, in water, and when dry



The plow in operation.



Front view of plow.



Plow withdrawn to show nature of cut.

CLEARING SNOW FROM RAILWAY TRACKS IN CANADA.



# BERNARD PALISSY, THE FAMOUS FRENCH POTTER, AND HIS WORKS

BY CHARLES A. BRASSLER

Bernard Palissy, whose statue by Barrias appropriately graces the court yard of the Ceramic Museum at Sèvres, is one of the most interesting figures in history.

Born about 1510, near Agen, now in the department of Lot and Garonne, France, he was apprenticed early in life to a potter, and interested himself greatly in the technique of his calling, particularly in the possibilities of the various materials. He traveled in France and Germany, keeping this object in view and studying, for this purpose, geology and natural history, supporting himself in the meantime by working as a land surveyor. About 1539, however, he settled at Salaries and here, while engaged in his calling, he began his systematic researches into the manufacture of pottery and the composition of enamel. It was here, he says in his book, "L'Art de la terre," "that without considering that I had no knowledge of argillaceous earths, I began my researches into enamels, like one who gropes in the dark."

An enamelled cup of falcon which came into his hands inspired him with the determination to discover a method of producing white enamel, and for nearly sixteen years, neglecting almost everything else, he devoted his time and attention to investigations and experiments in this direction. During this period, doubtless, he made the discoveries as to coloring, glazes, etc., that laid the foundation for his future success. His first attempts were unsuccessful, but he pursued his researches with unparalleled persistence and energy, sacrificing everything to what was then considered mere or loss of a chimney, and to what brought him no profit. He exhausted all his resources, and lacking fuel for the firing of his kilns,

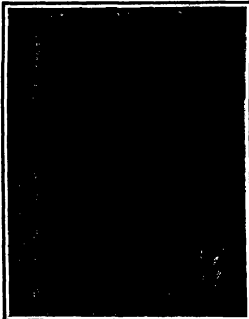
was reduced to the necessity of burning place by place his household furniture. Ridiculed by his neigh-

bors, bitterly reproached by his wife and tormented by the cries of his hungry children, he nevertheless persevered until finally, when reduced to the last desperate extremities, success rewarded his efforts.

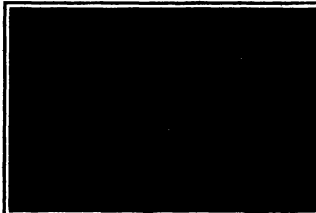
Unlike most of the investigators and experimentalists of his time, Palissy had conducted his labors systematically, and when he attained his object, he was able to repeat his work and obtain the same results. A few vessels, ornamented with life-like representations of reptiles, insects and small animals and colored true to nature, were a revelation to the ceramists of those times and brought prizes that soon enabled him to forget the hardships through which he had fought his way to success. He continued and perfected his researches and soon became famous, winning favor with the nobility and royalty, in the embellishment of whose palaces his genius was chiefly employed. This friendship stood him in good stead at the time of the massacre of St. Bartholomew, when the powerful protection of Queen Catherine and Anne de Montmorency, wife of the constable, saved him from the fate that befell so many of his fellow Huguenots, for Palissy had embraced the reformed faith.

A man of studious habits and keen intelligence, Palissy was among the earliest of French scientists to substitute for the fables and fanciful theories of so-called philosophers, hard facts, that were capable of practical demonstration. In 1575 he commenced the delivery of a course of lectures on natural history and physics, in which he gave a correct account of the origin of springs, the formation of stones and fossil shells, and advanced theories as to the best methods of purifying water, the use of marl as fer-

(Continued on page 131)



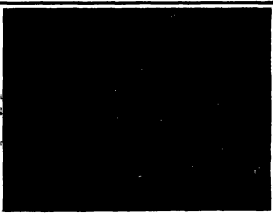
Portrait of Palissy. From an old French miniature on vellum at Cluny.



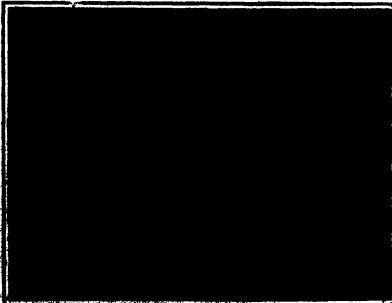
A cup and pitcher made by Bernard Palissy and now preserved in the Louvre.



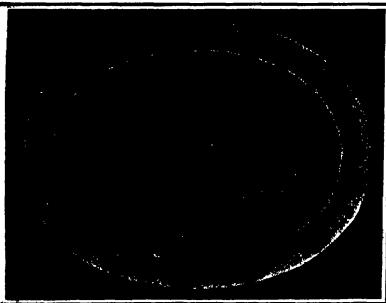
Palissy's reproduction in pottery of one of Briot's masterpieces. The Temperantia plate.



Pitcher belonging to the famous Temperantia basin and two candlesticks, all in the Louvre.



Large pitcher embellished with reptiles, fishes and shells made by Bernard Palissy.



"La Belle Jardinière," a famous plate by Palissy preserved in the Cluny Museum.

## THE HEAVENS IN FEBRUARY, 1910

BY HERBERT MORSE DANA, Ph.D.



THE FIRST among the astronomical discoveries of 1910 is that of a brilliant comet reported from South Africa on the 17th of January. At that time it was but five degrees south of the sun, but it was so bright that it was visible in full daylight to the unaided eye, and observations of its spectrum, made next day at the Lick Observatory, showed the sodium line bright on a continuous background, thus proving that the comet was very hot and self-luminous.

This doubtless means that it was then very near the sun, and strongly heated by its radiation. From the scanty information which is yet available it appears that the comet is moving rapidly northward and dimming in brightness. Its orbit has been computed and ephemeris will be found on page 128 of this issue. It is probable that it will be visible for a few weeks in the evening sky, just after sunset, and almost directly above the point where the sun disappears. It is, however, quite possible that it may lose so much in brightness, as it recedes from the sun, that it will not be very conspicuous. On the other hand, it may be a fine object, and the evening skies will be well worth watching especially about the beginning of February when moonlight no longer drowns out faint objects.

Halley's comet is still visible in the evening sky and is very slowly increasing in brightness, but it will probably be too faint for the naked eye, though perhaps visible in a field glass.

It will fortunately be easy to locate. Just north of the planet Saturn are three stars of the fourth magnitude, in an east and west line. On February 1st the comet will be about 50 min. of arc (or, roughly, one and a half times the moon's diameter) north of the middle one of these stars, and on the 17th it will be about the same distance north of the westernmost of the three. By following this line of motion it can easily be found at any time.

By the end of the month it will be pretty low in the west at sunset, and soon after it will fade in the twilight, to reappear, much brighter, in the morning sky in April.

While the appearance of these comets is exciting so much interest, a notable advance has been made in the explanation of these phenomena. Observations of the spectra of the last two bright comets (Daniels and Morhous) showed that the light of the tail can be stated almost entirely of bright bands, given out by some luminous gas. But at that time no gas was known which gave just those bands. Very recently Mr. Fowler of South Kensington, England, has found that a vacuum tube containing small quantities of nitrogen, and of carbon compounds (excited electrically so as to glow), shows a spectrum exactly like that of the comet's tail, provided the pressure of the gas is made exceedingly small.

As the pressure and density of the gas in a comet's tail must be almost invariably less than in any vacuum which we can produce by mechanical means, this gives us a satisfactory explanation of the observations. The luminous parts though so thinly distributed through space, are molecules of familiar gases, and one of the mysteries which surround comets has been cleared away.

## THE HEAVENS

The splendid and familiar winter constellations are now seen in all their glory.

Two south and about half way to the sky is Orion. The very bright star below him to the left is Sirius. West of this, directly below Orion, are the small groups

of the Hare and the Dove. Far below the latter, on the southern horizon, those who live south of Virginia or Missouri can see a star of exceptional brightness. This is Canopus, the principal star of the great constellation Argos, and, next to Sirius, the brightest in the heavens. This star's brightness might make us anticipate that, like Sirius, it might be a near neighbor of ours in space, but repeated and careful observations show that this is not so. Its distance is too great to measure accurately, but it is at least ten times as far off as Sirius, and probably much farther from us. Canopus must therefore be really a most magnificent luminary, exceeding our sun at least a thousand fold in brightness.

To the left of Orion and Taurus are Canis Minor and Gemini, and right overhead is Auriga, with the bright star Capella. In the southwest there is nothing of much interest, but in the west we see two bright objects, one above the other, not marked on the map. These are the planets, Mars and Saturn, whose motion among the stars makes it impossible to put them in our permanent maps of the heavens. Mars is higher up than Saturn, and is redder in color.

In the northwest we see Andromeda and Cassiopeia, and above them Perseus. This is another of the constellations which bears no real resemblance to any-

between us and the sun and become a morning star. At the beginning of the month she is easily visible in the evening, setting more than an hour and a half later than the sun, and at its end she is similarly conspicuous in the morning sky.

During the middle of February she will be invisible to the naked eye, but as she passes almost 8 degrees north of the sun, she should be observable telescopically, in full daylight, as a thin crescent, all through this time.

Mars is evening star in Arctus, remaining in sight till nearly midnight.

Jupiter is in Virgo, rising about 10 30 P. M. at the beginning of the month, and is 80 at its close.

Saturn is evening star in Pisces, setting about 10 P. M. in the middle of the month.

Uranus rises only about 1½ hours before the sun, and is unobservable.

Neptune is in Gemini, observable all the evening, but only with a good-sized telescope.

## THE MOON

Last quarter occurs at 8 A. M. on the 2nd, new moon at 8 P. M. on the 9th, first quarter at 10 P. M. on the 17th, and full moon at 2 P. M. on the 23rd. The moon is nearest us on the 12th, and farthest on the 28th. She is in conjunction with Venus and Mercury on the 7th, Venus on the 8th, Saturn on the 12th, Mars on the 15th, Neptune on the 20th, and Jupiter on the 27th. Princeton University Observatory.

## The Library of the Assyrian King, Sardanapalus.

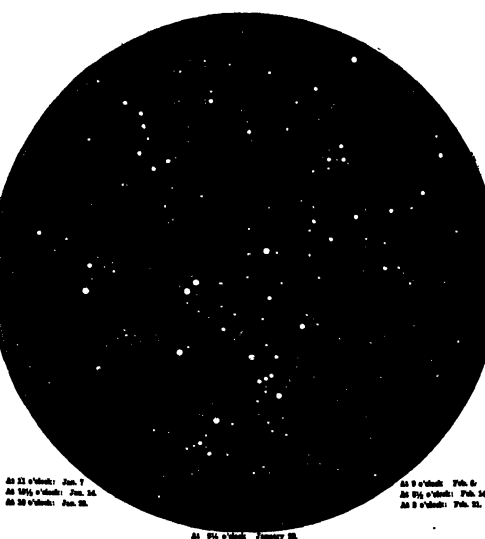
During the interval of the past fifty years twenty thousand stone tablets, approximately, of the library of the Assyrian king, Sardanapalus, were found in the course of excavations among the ruins of Nineveh and taken to London.

The texts written on them, which are related to one another apparently, in their now published in their original cuneiform script by the British Museum in serial collections. Various accounts of the whole world have therefore an opportunity for further investigation of the texts of their special provision, for every kind of text in cuneiform script presents its own particular difficulties to the translator and commentator.

In the fourth-tenth collection, or volume of the work are assembled those tablets of the king's library which regard chiefly the objects of the three natural king doms. Obviously many of these lists were prepared for purposes of medication.

For this reason a prominent physician, Baron Oefele, assisted by noted scholars in cuneiform, Sigmund de Lajard, began to examine this collection with a degree of skill that has become quite popular. Apart from the many lists which mention minerals, the numerous lists of animals are mostly of a uniform kind. The first names of animals are arranged in two columns, the same names being given in the first column in Sumerian and in the second column in Accadian, that is, in Babylonian. Still far more interesting than the material lists are the botanical lists, of which there is a great number, and which give the most various directions to acquaint the aspiring physician with the effect and use of hundreds of medicinal plants. This kind of list has been found that among the old Babylonians the knowledge of the natural sciences was already far greater than among their successors, the Greeks and Romans, whose names of animals and plants in its material lists have been derived partly from the Babylonian language.

The shortest track for steamers from Peking, Japan, Yokohama, Shanghai, and Hongkong comes by the route to San Pedro Bay, near Cape San Juan, at the southern end of Lower California, and to the ports of Manzanillo and Acapulco on the mainland of Mexico. Perhaps Manzanillo should be regarded as the closest port.



## NIGHT SKY: JANUARY AND FEBRUARY

At 21° declination: Jan. 1  
At 16½° declination: Jan. 15  
At 12° declination: Jan. 28

At 21° declination: Feb. 6  
At 16½° declination: Feb. 19  
At 12° declination: Feb. 27

At 16½° declination: January 25

thing in particular, but with the aid of the drawing in our initial it is possible to see how the ancients found here the figure of the hero carrying the head of the Gorgon Medusa, which is marked by the bright star Algor.

The bright spot in the Milky Way, between Perseus and Cassiopeia, is a splendid star cluster, showing well in the small telescopes.

To see how the northern constellations appear in the sky, we must turn our map upside down, so that the words "Northern Horizon" are at the bottom. It will then appear that Capheus is below the Pole, on the left. The Little Bear hangs by its tail from the Polestar. The Dragon is below, with his head out of sight and only his tail showing. The Great Bear is climbing up the heavens to the eastward, and is already high. In the east is Leo, pretty well up, and above is Cancer, with the star cluster Praesepe. Farther to the right is Hydra—an immense constellation, whose head is already high while its tail will continue to drag itself into sight for three hours longer.

## THE PLANETS

Mercury is morning star throughout the month, but is unfavorably placed south of the sun. It may be seen about the 20th, when he rises about 5-60 A. M. Venus is evening star until the 12th, when she passes

# **FEATHERMAN'S WORKSHOP**

## **KITCHEN ECONOMIZER GAS.**

BY J. J. JARMAN

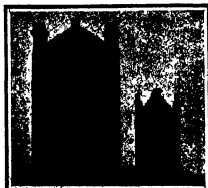
How to economize the consumption of gas for illuminating and heating purposes is a question of considerable importance today. The price charged for coal gas at the present time in many towns and cities is so high as to prevent its use for cooking purposes. Only by exercising the utmost economy in using only just enough to cook the small quantity of food required does the gas for cooking become advantageous under such conditions.



SECTION OF THE GAS ECONOMIZER APPARATUS.

By means of a simple apparatus the heating qualities of the gas can be improved so as to reduce cooking expenses and the cost of lighting as well, for in lamps it is the heat of the burning gas that renders the mantle brilliantly incandescent. Moreover the lighting qualities of the gas are greatly improved as well. The following apparatus, which was first made by the writer in 1872, has been put in use in hundreds of cases and has proved its efficiency in every instance. Any man who is handy in the use of metal working tools can make one and fit it to suit his gas supply by attaching it to the supply pipe where the gas has passed the meter, the gas then belongs to the consumer. It being the property of the gas consumed before it passes the meter.

The apparatus here described is suitable for a ten light meter, with all the fittings for lighting, heating and cooking. It consists of a closed tin cylinder 4 1/2 inches in diameter and seven inches high without the central top. Within this vessel is placed another cylinder made of galvanized wire netting, with a half inch mesh the diameter being four inches and height seven inches. This wire cylinder is placed within the tin can, having a one-inch space all round. Within this space clean, white cotton waste is packed. A tin cylinder C six and a half inches long and three and one-half inches diameter is soldered all round to the cone top of the cylinder A and is provided with a perforated bottom to allow the hydrocarbon with which the economizer is to be charged to run through and saturate the cotton waste D. The cylinder C acts as a spreader, causing the gas which enters by pipe F to contact in a thin layer with the cotton waste held by the galvanized wire cylinder and then pass out through pipe P. The apparatus is charged with benzene, gasoline, or a similar volatile hydrocarbon capable of being taken up by the nonilluminating carbon constituents of coal gas, such as hydrogen, marsh gas or carbolic oxide. At G is a suitable brass stop-cock, which enables one to turn off the gas when charging



A 100-LIGHT AND A 150-LIGHT GAS ECONOMIZER.

the apparatus with gasoline. The brass cap at B must have a disk of plastic board G in the interior so that it becomes perfectly gas-tight when screwed down. It is necessary to make a hole in the supply pipe A at H so that in case the gasoline should cover the bottom of the tin vessel this would prevent the discharging of the light gas to bubbling of the gas through the liquid.

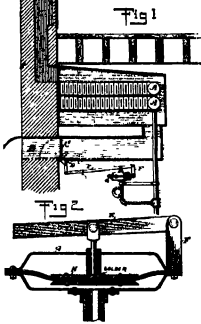
The charging of the apparatus must be carried out in daylight, and it should be fitted near a window where daylight is admitted, for a lighted match, candle or lamp must not be used. With these simple precautions the apparatus is perfectly safe. The cone top must be perfectly soldered where the tin cylinder meets, and all the brass connections attached to the inlet and outlet pipes must also be perfectly soldered. India rubber piping or connectors must not be used. Soldered connections, metal piping and screened brass connectors alone must be used. When the economizer is fitted and charged with about three pints of gasoline it will be found that the intensity of light from an ordinary naked burner will be vastly improved. It has been found that half a gallon of benzene will take the place of 500 cubic feet for direct illumination in this apparatus.

The cotton waste in the economizer must be packed moderately tight. If packed too loose it will sink and give less surface for the gas to reach the gas-line. Be sure and mark the outer end of the inlet pipe IN. This will prevent any mistake when installing the device.

## **REGULATOR FOR INDIRECT AND DIRECT-INDIRECT STEAM HEATING.**

BY J. J. JARMAN

Every indirect and direct-indirect steam heater should have some kind of a regulator so as to shut off the air supply when there is no heat in the radiator, otherwise, especially at night, when the steam pressure goes down and the air box remains open with the



REGULATOR FOR INDIRECT STEAM HEATING.

cold wind blowing directly into it, it will soon cool off the house.

The accompanying illustrations show a very simple way to make such a regulator. Fig. 1 shows the general arrangement of an indirect heating radiator, and Fig. 2 shows in detail the regulator.

The radiator A is enclosed in a box in the usual way taking its air from the outside through the passage B and having a shutter or damper C mounted to turn in suitable bearings on a shaft. The latter has a small bell crank D secured to its outer end which through a link is connected to a lever E. The lever E is pivoted to suitable brackets F fastened to the regulator G. The regulator can be made of two small frying pans or skillets say about 5 inches in diameter. A part of the central rim is bent outward forming flanges for bolting the same together. The bending is done very easily. Place the skillet over the edge of an iron block, and with a flat piece hammer strike the edge away about 1/4 inch all round. To the lower head, rivet a small floor flange, which will serve for connection with the steampipe from the boiler. In the center of the upper head a hole is made large enough to receive a half inch nipple. To the lever is fastened a short rod which passes down through this nipple to the diaphragm H.

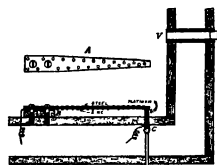
The diaphragm is made of sheet rubber, say 3/16 inch thick with one or more layers of duck in it. To the top and bottom disks of iron with beveled edges about 1/2 inch thick are riveted. To the upper disk is soldered a half inch nipple or pipe, serving as a guide. The whole is now placed between the two heads of the regulator and bolted together very closely. To the lower head is fastened the usual siphon pipe to connect the steam from the boiler to the regulator. As the steam pressure rises it will force the diaphragm

upward, thereby opening the shutter C in the air passage B, permitting the cold air to pass under and through the bank of radiators, thereby heating them there up through the radiator into the room and will keep it open until the steam pressure goes down. The weight of the arm E will then close the shutter preventing no more air to pass until again opened by the steam pressure. A weight may be attached to this lever, so as to close the shutter more effectually.

## **THERMOSTATIC ALARM FOR HOUSE HEATERS.**

THE accompanying diagram shows how a simple alarm for house heaters can be made.

The object of this alarm is to give warning when the furnace is overheated and needs attention, or when the fire is nearly out and needs more coal. A thermostatic bar 1 1/4 inches by 1/16-inch is made of copper



THERMOSTATIC ALARM FOR HOUSE HEATERS.

and iron riveted together very closely and fastened at one end are brackets D which are secured to a suitable base H. The free end of the bar A moves between two contact points B made of ordinary screw-eyes. These are secured into posts C made of 1/4 inch dowel and secured to the base H.

The whole is fastened in an inverted position over the furnace or other place where there is danger of over heating. After the contact points are adjusted to close the circuit at the proper temperature they are connected up to an electric bell and battery as indicated in the drawing.

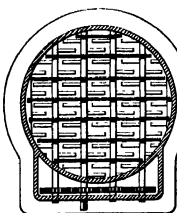
A switch is placed in the circuit at some convenient point. It will now be seen that when the thermostatic bar A moves to either side, according to the temperature and makes connections with contact points B the bell E will ring. When the apparatus gives the necessary alarm the switch must be turned off until the trouble is remedied.

## **ADAPTING A GRATE FOR SMALL COAL.**

BY J. J. JARMAN

The grates in the ordinary house-heating furnaces are regulated and made for the best and most suitable size of coal to be used in each particular case. That is to say, in a large boiler furnace where a coal is most suitable, a very coarse and open grate is provided but in a smaller furnace where smaller coal is to be used, a much closer grate is furnished.

In some localities where pea coal is much cheaper than egg size or nut it would perhaps be more economical to burn the pea coal provided the grate would permit. As a rule, if the pea coal is used in these large furnaces it has not proved very successful on account of the coarse grate, unless a new one is put in more suitable for the smaller coal as the shanking of



GRATE ADAPTED FOR BURNING SMALL COAL.

the old grate will cause the whole fire to dump into the ash pit.

To overcome this the writer has tried several methods and has come to the conclusion that the best is that shown in the accompanying illustration.

The grate is an ordinary rocking finger grate between every or every other finger (which will depend upon the kind of grate and also of the size of coal to

be used) is placed across the entire grate a piece of say 1/2-inch pipe or bar. These pipes or bars rest on the grate bars and are not affected by the rocking of the grate. As the ashes accumulate on top of these bars they have a tendency to keep them in place and will prevent them from moving or burning.

There should always be a layer of an inch or two of ashes on any grate. Care should be taken not to shake the grate too much, as a great deal of live coal will fall through and sometimes will be burnt in the ash pit thereby wasting and destroying the grate bars.

The writer has used some old pipes and grate bars for a number of years and today they are as good as new. Some years ago, during the coal famine, a great deal of bituminous coal was burned with perfect success. It is not when starting a new fire to clean out the ash pit and if any live coals fall through they may be shovelled up on the grate again until enough ashes are formed to prevent them from falling through.

#### HOW TO BURN COAL ECONOMICALLY

The accompanying illustrations show how in a very simple way the ashes in an ordinary furnace may be consumed and burned thereby giving off a more uniform heat and maintaining an even temperature throughout the house continuously night and day. It will effect a saving on the coal bin and produce more heat besides.

The fire in a stove or furnace is simply the result of a chemical union of the carbon properties of the fuel both solid and gaseous, with the oxygen of the air.

By the complete combustion of one pound of coal 14,000 heat units are given off, but by the incomplete combustion of one pound of coal, as burned in the great majority of domestic hearths, only about 4,000 to 5,000 heat units are produced and the balance of the heat passes away up the chimney a rich combustible gas that should have burned.

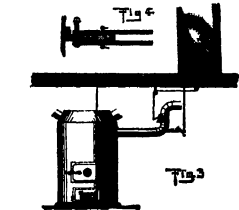
To obtain the highest efficiency from coal it must be burned with the least possible supply of air consistent with perfect combustion, as an excess of air carries the heat of the fuel into the chimney and a certain mixture of air from below the grate will cause an explosion in the smoke pipe blowing the fire door open and filling the cellar with spent gases.

Nearly every furnace discharges so-called "coal gas" which is due either to poor draft or a defective fire, or an improper adjustment of the dampers. As the odor is so noticeable, the difficulty is soon remedied. Every furnace, however, is constantly discharging more or less carbon monoxide gas which is perfectly odorless and is a very energetic poison, as the result of imperfect combustion.

Ordinarily the domestic use of coal results into the gas, opens the dampers and drives it up the chimney and then proceeds to burn the coke, which is only about one-half of the heat value of the coal, besides it is not alone the heat that escapes up the chimney, but the rich combustible gas that passes away unburned. This gas when burned produces a uniformly

hot flame. To keep this current of hot air rising, a "cold-air box" connects the lower part of the furnace with the outside air and is regulated with a damper. This cold-air box should always be kept open as much as possible and never entirely closed while there is fire in the furnace, as the furnace will become overheated and may be injured.

Fig. 1 shows how the common hot-air furnace may be adapted to burn the gas of the coal. A small pipe, say 1 inch or 1 1/2 inch is inserted through the upper part of the smoke pipe (as the gases here are the hottest), terminating in close proximity to the smoke collar just inside of the radiator of the stove. The fire in the furnace, as the furnace will become overheated and may be injured, such as shown in detail in Fig. 3. The cross pipes have a number of 3/16-inch holes drilled in the lower side, or



HAIRD METHOD OF REGULATING THE DAMPERS.

facing downward. The outer end of the pipe is fitted with some kind of a damper to regulate the supply of air. As the cold air passes through this pipe it becomes heated and at the delivery end is of the same temperature as the gases, but as the specific gravity of the heated air is much greater than that of the gases in the furnace, it drops down and mixes with the gases forming a combustible mixture which now burns with a blue flame, just as in an ordinary gas stove. If a small piece of mica is inserted into the fire door this burning may be observed. It is a very interesting phenomenon.

In order to make the system a success the fire pot must be in perfect condition, that is to say, in a hot air furnace there should be no communication between the fire pot and the air chamber, no cracks and no loose joints. The fire door should be as airtight as possible. This may be made tight in the following manner. First, file and remove all rust at the edge of the door and the metallic surface appears, then cut a narrow strip of asbestos and soak in salt water, after which place it around the door and it will adhere. Put a little oil on the door frame and close the door. The asbestos will then fill up any opening and make very hard on the door.

If everything below the grate were absolutely airtight no combustion would take place, but as all furnaces leak more or less this leakage is enough to support combustion in ordinary weather. In extremely cold weather, however, the slide in the ash pit door may be opened a little, so as to furnish a little more air.

A damper is attached to the smoke pipe above the ash pit, so that when open it will not cool off the air pipe.

A fire is built in the furnace the ordinary way, keep the air damper closed until a good fire is obtained, then put on some coal and keep the lower damper open for a few minutes, after which close all drafts and open the air damper, regulate the same according to the heat required, that is to say, more heat, more air. Through the before-mentioned mica window observe the results. All the gases in the furnace will, however, not burn, as some are bound to escape unburned.

There is more economy in running a large, slow fire all day long than a hot one at intervals. Therefore it is best to run the fire twice a day, in the morning and at night, and regulate it so that the fire burns with an even temperature. It will keep the house at a uniform temperature night and day.

When the furnace has been cooled for the day or the night the dampers may be controlled from any room above by simply raising or lowering a lever connected with wires running over pulleys to the various dampers, thereby saving many a step. This is shown in Fig. 2, a sectional plan of the levers is shown in Fig. 4.

In ordinary weather the fire should only be shaken once a day, preferably in the morning, but in very mild weather twice a week will suffice. Only shakes until the first red coal comes down. In furnaces with very strong drafts shake but very little, as the layer of ashes on top of the grate will help check the draft. If the fire is very low stick a few pieces of kaffir

wood into the fire. This will heat up the smoke pipe. The ash-pit door may also be opened until the fire is drawn up, then regulate as before described.

With this arrangement in good working order every particle of coal will burn to its ash. The slide in the coal, of course, will not burn.

This applies to all three heating systems in domestic use, namely, hot air, hot water, and steam, as it only takes care of the draft.

In hot-air heating, in addition to regulating the fire, the cold-air box must be regulated. This box generally terminates outside the building under a porch. It has always a small hole in the side of entrance because of changes in the direction of the wind. Sometimes the wind will blow directly into it and cool off the house, but when the wind is from another direction it will smother the hot air out of the furnace and into the atmosphere. To overcome this a shield is placed in front of the box, say 8 inches from the building, overlapping about 12 to 18 inches all around. Then it will be impossible for the wind to interfere with the regulation of the air, which is generally done in the collar with a damper or shutter.

The pipes in the cellar leading to the registers should be kept clean, also the registers. Avoid putting any wire netting to catch articles dropped thereon, as it will catch more dirt than anything else, sometimes clogging up the meshes completely, forming an excellent breeding place for bacteria.

The water pan should be connected with the water supply, controlled by a float valve. This insures an even water level in the furnace.

In steam heating plants the boiler and radiators should be large enough to keep the house at a temperature of 70 deg. in zero weather with one pound of steam, as this will take a great deal less coal than when the boiler and radiators are too small, and require a steam pressure of 10 to 20 pounds.

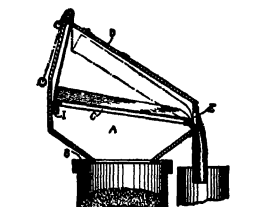
In houses where the draft is good one day and poor the next, despite favorable wind, the fault is with the chimney. It should be built higher. This is a great deal cheaper and better than to put an unsightly cap on it.

#### HOME-MADE ASH SIFTER.

BY A MEMBER.

A dustless ash sifter can be made at a very small expenditure of money by following the lines of the accompanying drawing. Make a box A shaped as shown about 2 feet high 2 feet long, and 10 inches high at its lowest part. Bore a hole in the top of the box to fit a square hole in a base board B. Make the base board square to fit over top of an ash can and cut a square hole in the base board of such a size as to be suitably within the diameter of ash can. Nail the base board to the bottom of the box.

Then make a frame C of 1 inch wide stock, 1 inch narrower than the inside width of box and 1 inch shorter than the inside length of the box. Bore a 1/2-inch hole in the center of one of this frame and cover the frame with 1/2-inch mesh galvanized netting. Insert two thirds of this frame with this board, about 5 inches high, tapering the two sides, as shown,



SECTIONAL VIEW OF THE HOME-MADE ASH SIFTER.

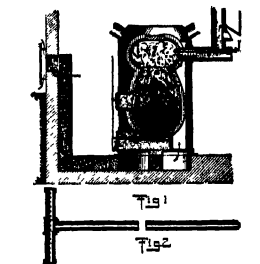
and leaving the discharge and open, which should be hinged to front end of box with two 3 by 1/2 inch hinges. Put a piece of rough board D in the top of the frame and fasten it on top so that it will not pull out.

The box is now ready for the top which has a hinged door D, as shown. On top of box place a pulley and run the rope through the hole in the top of the box and over the pulley wheel. The end of the rope may have a large ring attached to it as shown.

This arrangement will allow the sifting frame to be swung up and down, turning the frame every time it strikes the block F fastened in rear of the box.

Over the opening in front of box fasten a hinged cloth to guide the ash into a suitable receptacle and prevent dust from rising.

This sifter has proved very useful and does not require a month's shoveling of sifted ashes.



ARRANGEMENT FOR BURNING THE GASES OF THE COAL.

higher temperature than the coal itself, which may burn at varying temperatures even so low as to produce but little heat.

The flue gases that form in the furnace are the result of an exothermic draft below the grate.

To accomplish the mixing of the hot gases and air the air must be heated to the same temperature.

The most common domestic heating furnace is the hot-air furnace. This is simply an improved stove inclosed in a sheet iron or brick casing. The furnace heats the air within this inclosure to a high temperature and therefore rises to the rooms above through











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**I** take up the story of "Bill" and several of his companions at boarding school. They form a very interesting narrative, and are full of practical instructions for building the various articles. The needs of the boy camper are supplied by the directions for making tramping outfits, sleeping bags and tents, also such other articles as tree houses, draw huts, log cabins and caves. The winter diversions in classic instructions for making six kinds of skate sails and eight kinds of snowshoes and skis, besides ice boats, scooters, sledges, toboggans and a peculiar Swedish contrivance called a "runwolf." Among the more instructive subjects covered are surveying, wigwagging, telegraphing and bridge-building, in which six different kinds of bridges, including a simple cantilever bridge, are described.

12mo. 338 Pages. 314 Illustrations. Price \$2.00 postpaid

The object of these books is to instruct boys how to build various devices and apparatus, particularly for outdoor use. The constructions are fully within the scope of the average boy and the instructions are interspersed in a story which makes the books interesting as well as instructive.

**MUNN & CO., Inc., Publishers, 361 Broadway, New York**

(Continued from page 132.)  
speed of 15 miles per hour. The total weight of the car is estimated at 6 tons, and will seat 24 passengers, whereas the ordinary street car of the same size weighs twice that amount. The battery weighs 2,700 pounds, the car body 3,500, and the truck complete, 3,800 pounds. It is claimed that the capacity of the batteries is sufficient to run the car continuously for 100 miles, although in regular street traffic, where a car is obliged to stop and start and crawl behind trucks, a single charge would probably carry the car but half this distance. The car is to be tested on West Street, in this city, where an excellent opportunity will be given it to demonstrate its efficiency for regular street service, not only as regards the battery, but the light car construction as well.

### ARTIFICIAL PRODUCTION OF THE VOICE.

(Continued from page 120)

emitted by the larynx were recorded by a phonograph. The following conclusions were reached:

When the larynx of a dog is removed during chloroform anesthesia, the larynxed animal is unable to produce any sound for a short period, which varies from 3 to 10 minutes, but no contraction can be produced in the muscles of a dead larynx, even if it is removed immediately after the death of the animal, because the arterial blood has escaped. In order to produce the vibrations the current of air should be supplied by a pressure of from 6 to 8 inches of water as it is in the normal production of the human voice. In these conditions the excited larynx of the dog larynx and hoarseness in every note of the canine register from the deep baying of a mastiff to the shrill piping of a terrier. These various notes are obtained as will by causing various muscles to contract if the stimulation is confined to the muscles which connect the two arytenoid cartilages (two small cartilages at the back of the larynx) to which the posterior ends of the vocal cords are attached; three cartilages approach each other and a deep tone is produced. If on the other hand the stimulation is extended to the muscles which connect the arytenoid cartilages with the thyroid cartilages, the sharp, shaped cartilage at the front of the larynx, constituting the "Adam's apple," to which the anterior ends of the vocal cords are attached, the vocal cords are contracted and a high, shrill note results.

The pitch of the note appears to be in dependent of the pressure of the air and the strength of the electric current, and to be determined solely by the part of the muscular system of the larynx to which the stimulation is applied. The whole larynx, including the glottis and the epiglottis, changes its form with every change in pitch. Hence the larynx is a muscular instrument which produces various notes by changing its form and dimensions.

These experiments, in addition to their purely scientific interest, explain the sudden loss of voice in such singers and public speakers are often subject. The loss of voice has nothing to do with the vocal cords, but is caused by a sudden contraction of some of the muscles which control the glottis and is analogous to the rheumatic and neuritic joint stiffness suddenly in various parts of the body.

### BERNARD PALMER, THE FAMOUS PHONETIC POTTER, AND HIS WORKS

(Continued from page 125)

Illiteracy, etc. (Last number of scientific research has been to correct. He was arrested as a heretic in 1588 and imprisoned in the Bastille, but in 1600, before his case had been disposed of, he died.

Quite a number of authentic specimens of his work are in existence, and they are practically as priceless in value as the more expensive works of the Louvre and Cluny Museums, from which our illustrations are obtained. (Concluded on page 135)





### 1910 MODEL. Ideal Lawn Mower Grinder

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# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

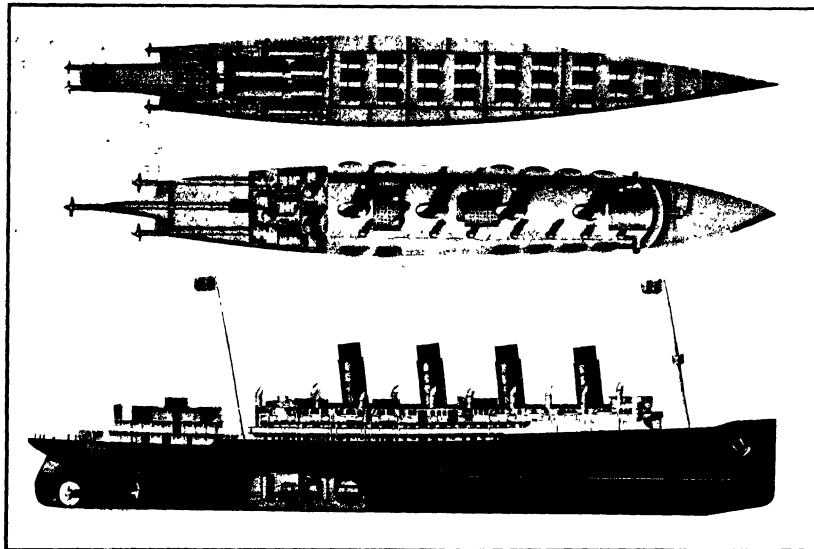
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**A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS**

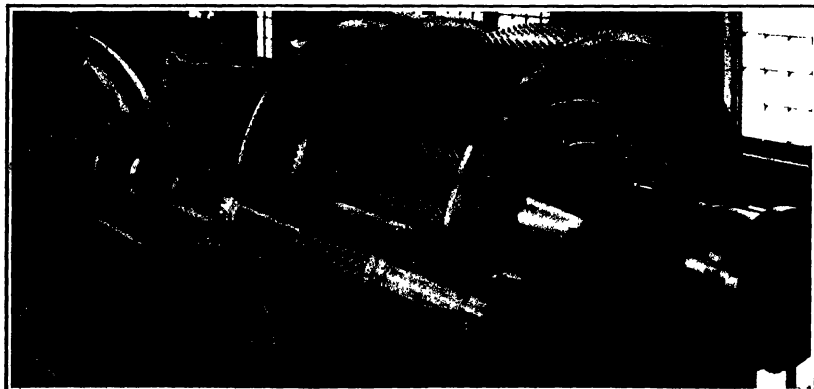
VOL. CXL—No. 7  
ESTABLISHED 1845

NEW YORK, FEBRUARY 12, 1910

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The upper engraving shows the space occupied by the hulls and engines of the "Mauretania." The two lower engravings demonstrate the large saving in space resulting from the use of high-speed turbines, driving, through reduction gears, three slow-speed propellers. They would save 1,600 tons of coal and over \$5,200 on each transatlantic trip.



The piston, direct-connected to the turbine, runs at 1,500 revolutions per minute. The spur wheel, direct-connected to the propeller, runs at 300 revolutions per minute. **SPEED-REDUCTION GEAR—A WAY OUT OF THE MARINE TURBINE DILEMMA**—[See page 149.]

## SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

ESTABLISHED 1845

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NEW YORK: PUBLISHED FEBRUARY 12, 1910

The belief is expressed in this issue that a universal distribution of the

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## CANADA AND THE QUEBEC BRIDGE.

**E**MINENTLY and architecturally, the work of the first magnitude are to no little degree an expression in concrete form of the character of the people by whom they are built. It would be difficult to find a city to which our impressions of the ancient Greek are based upon the architecture of his noble shrines and temples or how far our respect for the later Roman is due to feats of engineering skill that would do credit to our twentieth century civilization.

Because of the skill and daring which are so often to be involved in the design and erection of bridges of unusual magnitude, it has ever been one of the most difficult, we had almost said spectacular, feats of construction, and the successful erection of such structures has brought world-wide fame to the engineer and designer. In the history of the country in which the work was done, the bridge stands today as one of the noblest monuments of constructive engineering in the whole of the Western empire, and a monument which is responsible for the fact that the city of Montreal has recently been placed in the list of the great cities of the world. So too our own beautiful and dignified Brooklyn Bridge over the East River is a lasting tribute to the bridge engineer of the United States, and the city of Trenton has recently unveiled a monument to the memory of the bridge engineer of long ago upon suspension bridges.

But that sublime notoriety and bridge engineering fame to the man and the people who carry great engineering works to a successful issue must, in the very nature of things, throw a proportionate shadow of discredit when one of these great structures falls in utter ruin, and as in the case of the Quebec bridge carries with it one hundred souls to destruction. This fact was frankly recognized at the time by the engineering and technical press both in this country and in Canada, and it was realized to be a matter of national importance that when the bridge came to be rebuilt, the new structure should not only be perfectly safe and strong but that it should embody such architectural treatment as would render it aesthetically pleasing to the eye, and worthy of that great school of bridge engineering which has sprung up and flourished in the Province of Quebec.

When the Canadian government took hold of the matter and lent all its powerful prestige and financial assistance to the scheme, it was accepted as an axiom that the new bridge should be a masterpiece of the great Dominion across the border line. We have to confess, however, that the bridge which it is now proposed to build is decidedly disappointing. The type selected and the method of treatment are not up to the highest standards of bridge engineering. In other words the design is distinctly commonplace. Aesthetically it has not a single redeeming feature.

In redesigning the bridge, the Canadian government could have made more use of securing the best possible designs. If they had thrown the bridge open to world-wide competition. We should then have learned whether the structure which is now being built is the best beautiful bridge could have been secured under the cantilever or under the suspension system of design. Personally we believe that on all three counts it would be possible to build a suspension bridge that would be greatly superior to the structure which it is now proposed to build. The suspension bridge especially has the advantage of great proportions in a far more bridge to steel, most recommended to those heavy erection structures which are the peril of large cantilever erection. Moreover the essential elements namely the anchorage, the towers and the main cables are at all times visible from the river and may be erected with the absolute certainty that

they are well within the limits of safe construction. With these main elements assured, it is possible for failures to occur in subordinate elements, such as the masonry, and stiffening trusses, without in the least endangering the integrity of the bridge as a whole.

Not so, however, the cantilever bridge, the greater part of whose intricate framework is in compression. Let but one among the multitudinous members of the main trusses fail, and the whole structure will be thrown into immediate and absolute ruin—as witness the mass of tangled steel now lying in the St. Lawrence River.

For the credit of the profession of bridge engineering in the New World, for the prestige of the great and growing power of Canada, and above all for the greater safety of the public at large, we trust that, before the final plans of this great bridge are adopted the Canadian government will take steps to make it certain that the final bridge will, from every point of view—engineering, architectural, and artistic—be the noblest work of its kind yet erected in any country.

## CAUSES OF THE PARIS FLOOD

**T**HINGS appear to be a consensus of opinion among the French engineers that the cause of the recent phenomenal rise of the Seine was the result of the two following factors: 1. The fact that the river is in geological terms in an unusual position. The basin of the Seine and the streams that are tributary to that river consists of a large, shallow, and, as the slope is so slight, any sudden precipitation is ordinarily absorbed by the ground. In winter when the soil is either frozen or saturated by the rains, there is a risk that the runoff of a heavy precipitation will be so large and sudden as to overtax the capacity of the river channels. These conditions obtained to a marked degree during the recent continuous heavy rainfall and flood. Monitor the geology is of the opinion that the heavy rains, producing the flood found the soil of the Seine watershed so thoroughly impermeable because of saturation that the water ran off as swiftly as it would from the surface of an asphalt or concrete street. Furthermore, it seems to be generally agreed that the denudation of the forests in the higher regions of the watershed has been a contributory cause to the flood. Not only do the trees, by their evaporation, but the more underground, also exerts a material influence in retarding the flow of the water.

Referring again to the question of the prevention of future floods at Paris, regarding which we have said editorial comment last week, there is an alternative plan to that of dredging or widening the channel and the removal of river piers which, were it not for the enormous expense involved, would undoubtedly safeguard against future disaster. We refer to the heroic measures employed by the Austrian engineers to prevent the flooding of the city of Vienna by the Danube. This consisted in cutting an artificial channel entirely around the city through which, after the river reached a certain elevation all the surplus waters are diverted and discharged into the river below the city. It would be possible to create a similar by-pass around the city of Paris, but the cost due to the great value of the land which would have to be condemned would probably be found to be prohibitive.

## WATER CONSERVATION IN NEW YORK STATE.

**A**FTER about three years of investigation of the subject of water resources, the State Water Supply Commission estimates that 1,000,000 horse power of water energy is running to waste every year in the State of New York. That it was developed according to plans drawn up by its engineers the State would realize a yearly rental of at least \$1,000,000.

As a result of its investigation of the watersheds of the Hudson, Genesee, and Niagara rivers the Commission has located and surveyed four reservoir projects for the development of water power and the control of floods. These are the Schoharie, Schoharie Lake reservoirs on the Hudson, the Portage reservoir on the Genesee, and the Tupper Lake reservoir on the Adirondack. The Commission considers that the Hudson River, because of its great population and important industries of the cities situated along its banks, should receive the first consideration in any system of conservation that may be adopted, and it recommends that a dam be placed at a point on the Sacandaga River, 20 miles south of Albany of a dam and storage reservoir of 20 billion cubic feet capacity. Such a dam would convert 30 miles of the present river valley into an artificial lake of the size of Lake George.

The principal object of this reservoir would be to hold back and store the flood waters, and afford relief during the low-water periods. It is planned to the various power plants along the Hudson, by releasing sufficient water to maintain the level of the river at the desired stage for operation of the hydroelectric plants. In addition, the water stored, afforded by such control of the stage of the river

water, the power developed directly in connection with the big dam would be transmitted electrically to such towns as Albany, Troy, Schenectady, Saratoga, Poughkeepsie, and other less important towns. The estimated value of the power developed by the big dam would be \$1,000,000 per year, leaving an estimated annual gross earnings \$437,500, leaving an estimated annual net revenue to the State of \$189,000. The Commission estimates that in this way the cost of the reservoir would be returned to the State in five years at the end of which time it would be the sole owner of the works, which would yield a perpetual income from the power stored up waiting to be used.

The Commission advises that the work be undertaken by the State, because under State control the necessary funds can be provided more economically, and the interests of the public can be absolutely safeguarded. It recommends the enactment of a law authorizing the development of the power of the Hudson River, the construction of a storage dam on the Sacandaga at Conklingville, the amendment of the Constitution to permit the flooding of State lands in building storage reservoirs to be owned by the State, another amendment providing for a bond issue in the State of \$1,000,000 to build the dam, and the building of other reservoirs to regulate the flow of rivers for power purposes and flood control.

## STEEL BELTS.

**I**N Germany steel belts are used in many large factories and electric power stations. The principal difficulty connected with their employment is that of obtaining them in the right size. The ends are now provided by the makers with steel plates which need simply to be screwed together. It is necessary in use of steel belts of special quality and temper. It is advantageous to cover the belt with coarse canvas, to which thin strips of cork are attached in order to prevent slipping. The cork lasts practically forever and reduces the sliding to less than one-tenth per cent of the travel. Prof. Konnerke has experimented with a steel strip, two-thirds inch wide and one-fifth inch thick, with two wheels, eight feet in diameter for the transmission of 100 horse-power, with a tension of 440 pounds. Although the wheels were not covered, they worked very efficiently at a speed of 200 feet per second. The maximum slip was one per cent and the loss of energy due to this was inappreciable.

Steel belts possess the following advantages. The energy is transmitted without slipping and almost without loss of heat. The belts are made of steel and may be reduced to between one-third and one-tenth of that of leather belts transmitting the same power, consequently the wheels may be narrower and lighter and the shafts less diameter. The steel belts do not deteriorate appreciably they may be used in damp places and do not appear to be attacked by acids or alkalis. They allow the attainment of velocities of 100 feet per second and are consequently very suitable for use with turbines. The required tension is one-tenth less than that of leather belts transmitting the same power, because of the difference in weight from which results an additional economy, owing to the diminished friction on the bearings. Much room can be saved by using steel belts because their efficiency does not depend upon their length. They can be used locally in place of gearing. The makers assert that they cost less than leather belts of good quality.

The oldest steel belts have been in service two years. In Berlin factory a leather belt produced the same output as a steel belt 4 inches wide which transmits about 250 horse-power. The belt, after two years use, shows no indication of wear. The only objection to steel belts is that they are not so easily repaired, consequently may cause accidents if they are not carefully guarded.

A remarkable phenomenon was observed during a thunder shower in Finland in the summer of 1908 by V. J. Laine, who was making meteorological observations for the Finnish scientific society. The shower appeared from the east and the rain fell in the form of thunder, about intervals of a half hour, ceased for any rain fell at the place of observation. During approximately the same half hour the eastern horizon was completely covered by a dense rainbow, which likewise vanished before the rain came. Immediately after each spell of thunder the colors of both bows and especially those of the secondary bow, became confused and faded. The rainbow, which appeared to vibrate rapidly, Laine explains this singular phenomenon, in accordance with the Airy Perturb theory of the rainbow, by assuming that the electric discharges which are the cause of the thunder, also increased the diameter of the rain drops from less than 1/500 inch to between 1/500 and 1/8 inch. If this assumption is confirmed it will furnish a new and interesting theory of the thunder storm, which is still speculative.

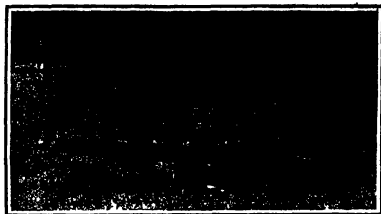


## A NOVEL AMERICAN MONOPLANE

The monoplane illustrated herewith is one of the most novel aeroplanes which has thus far been produced. It is the invention of Mr. A. L. Pittman who for some time past has been associated with Mr. Glenn H. Curtiss in the production of his aeroplanes.

This new monoplane while resembling the Curtiss biplane in some features is a distinct departure from the usual type of single surface machine such as produced abroad by Deltoid and the Anloin Company (like the machines there is no square triangular body extending the length of the machine and carrying a pair of wings near its front end. In place of this there is a single plane mounted upon four vertical wheel struts at its center and having a fixed horizontal tail 10 feet at the rear and a single surface horizontal rudder 14 feet in front. The vertical rudder is placed in front just above and at the center of the horizontal rudder. Both rudders are therefore always within the view of the aviator. They are controlled by a single wheel placed vertically in front of the aviator. This wheel also operates sliding panels on the under side of the monoplane at each end for the purpose of maintaining the transverse stability. The fact that all three controls are operated by a single wheel makes this machine the simplest to drive of any thus far produced.

The plane has a spread of 37 feet and a four and a half width of 6 feet. The plane itself is but 51 feet by 8 feet equivalent to an area of 144 square feet. The sliding wing tips are each 24 feet by 4 feet from front to rear. The horizontal rudder is 6 x 7 feet in size and the vertical rudder 3 feet long by 2 feet high. The dimensions of the tail surface are 6 x 2 feet. The total weight of the machine the tanks being filled with 6 gallons of gasoline and 1 gallon of oil and the radiator with 1½ gallons of water is 450



Copyright 1910 by A. L. Pittman

Rear view of monoplane, showing novel sliding wing tips

This view is taken from the rear of the plane and shows the novel sliding wing tips and the vertical rudder below.

It is front of the sliding wing tips.



Mr. Pittman at the control wheel of his monoplane

This view is taken from the front of the plane and shows the novel sliding wing tips and the rudder and the wing tips.

THE FIRST AMERICAN MONOPLANE TO FLY

pounds. The weight carried on square feet is therefore slightly more than 3 pounds.

The four vertical posts forming the chassis terminate in forks of seamless steel tubing each of which carries a 20-inch pneumatic-tired wheel. The posts are spaced apart by steel tubing braces and by wooden skids extending from the front to the rear. The front edge of the main plane is mounted upon these uprights 48 inches above the ground. The rear edge which is formed of steel tubing stretched over the ribs is 104 inches lower than the front edge where it crosses the main vertical uprights. The ribs have a slight curvature of about 1 in 18 the number being 24, 16 inches in the length of 8 feet. The center of pressure is located about 7½ inches back of the front edge of the plane. The ribs are laid upon two main spars running the entire length of the machine the foremost of which forms the front edge of the plane while the rear one is 10 inches in advance of the rear edge and rests in sheet steel sockets attached to the heavy main ribs that connect the central vertical uprights. At suitable distances from the center of the machine on these front and rear spars vertical struts are attached to them for the purpose of trussing the plane. The 25 horse power 4 cylinder 4-cycle Curtiss water-cooled motor is mounted upon two laminated beams extending from a cross tube at the rear through the monoplane surface to the front edge. The rear of the motor is substantially braced by four diagonal tubes as can be seen in one of the photographs. The propeller especially designed by Mr. Pittman is 6 feet in diameter and gives 215 pounds thrust at 1500 R. P. M. or 84 pounds to the horse power. The oil tank is seen just below the surface of the plane in the photograph just referred to. The oil is circulated (Continued on page 141)

## NEW OVERHEAD ELECTRICAL CONSTRUCTION ON THE N. H. R.R.

The New York and New Haven Railroad Company is so well satisfied with the operation of its electrical route from Stamford to New

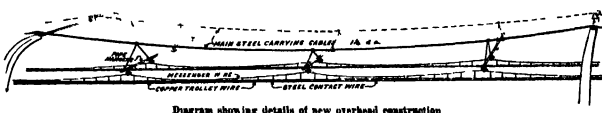
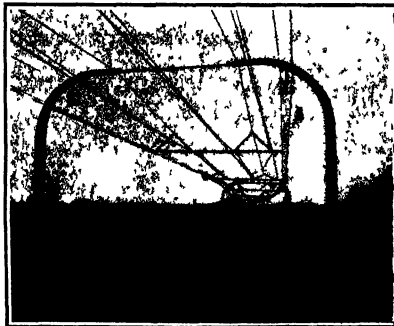
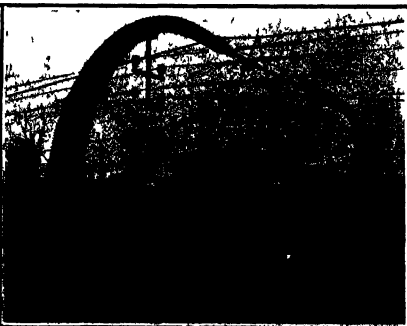


Diagram showing details of new overhead construction

York that it has decided to extend the electrification for another forty miles to New Haven. The company is also (Continued on page 141)



General view of the light and pleasing appearance of the construction.



Near view of a pair of curved supporting columns showing a triangulated pipe hanger, suspended from the two 14-inch main carrying cables.

THE NEW OVERHEAD SYSTEM OF THE NEW HAVEN RAILROAD ELECTRIFICATION



## SMOKELESS POWDER—METHOD OF MANUFACTURE.— II.

BY ROBERT G. SKERRETT

In the issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN of February 12 it was shown how greatly the improvements in the power of naval guns are due to the introduction and development of smokeless powder. The present article is devoted to the description of its manufacture.

The base of our smokeless powder is cellulose—that wonderful and yet indescribable form of matter. Cotton is one type of pure cellulose.

In 1833 Braconot discovered that starch dissolved in nitric acid and when cleansed in water became an intense explosive. A little later Pelouze obtained the same results by soaking cotton fabrics in that acid

cotton and to fashion it into a safe and practical propellant. We followed France but our powder has been the immediate offspring of that produced by the great Russian chemist Mendeleef.

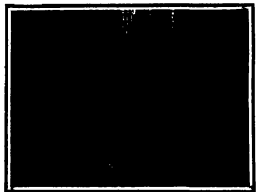
It seems paradoxical that we should seek for a safer and less violent propellant than common gunpowder by adopting for a base an explosive well known to be more vigorous and more unruly. The secret discovered by the chemists proved nitrocellulose to be amenable to the influence of detergent agents which subdue the suddenness of explosion while the form of the grains regulates in a remarkable way the rapidity with which the granules burn and generate the propelling gases. Smokeless powder can now be made in grains of such size and such form that the conditions imposed by each caliber of gun can be met and the muzzle velocity of the shot regulated with astonishing precision. Thus the task of the ordnance engineer is now quite opposite to that of former days. To day the gun is designed to meet certain requirements while the propellant is afterward made to suit the gun.

Now for the manner in which harmless cotton is transformed into a ballistic agent at the Naval Powder Factory Indian Head Md. No official secrets are betrayed because the value of the process lies in the close proportioning of the various ingredients combined with particular forms of grains. These secrets are the outcome of lessons learned after much experimenting in which the variation of a tiny fraction of an inch may either make or mar the product.

Cotton when steeped in nitric acid becomes soluble in a mixture of ether and alcohol if the percentage of nitration be less than 12.75 and is insoluble when the measure of acid is above this arbitrary dividing line. When below this percentage nitrated cotton, which by nitration becomes an explosive—may be dissolved into a plastic substance and when the ether alcohol solvent has in its turn been evaporated the cellulose becomes a hard tough translucent mass. Before hardening however the stuff is pressed into grains of various shapes which burn with a bright orange flame and without smoke. Our smokeless powder is a brother of celluloid so useful in modern life and the art of photography while celluloid in the art of applications is a first cousin and like just beyond the

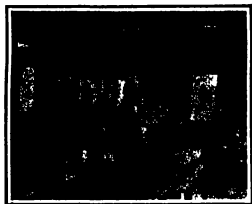
dividing line of those substances soluble in ether alcohol.

The cotton used may be either the blooms straight from the fields or the waste mill waste. In either case the cotton is cleansed by an alkaline bath and then well dried in an atmosphere of 15 to 20° F. The workers toil in this temperature but the dryness of the air explains why they are not boiled alive. The object of the drying is to make the cotton more absorbent in the acid thus insuring more nearly perfect nitration. After the cotton has been dried it is



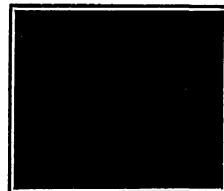
The nitrating house is like a great, gloomy steam laundry the cotton being steeped in concentrated wringers like those in which clothes are washed.

and then washing them in water. This was the first step in the evolution of smokeless powder. Because of the great violence and erratic behavior of the explosive thus discovered it took years to develop it into a safe propellant. More than half a century ago Austria and later France used nitrocellulose in their ordnance but its impetuous action could not then be properly curbed and a series of accidents and unexpected explosions caused its abandonment. Years later when the speedy torpedo boat and the rapid fire gun arrived French chemists through stress of need found ways to check the explosive violence of gun



The powder is forced through manure dies in the form of an endless rope, perforated from end to end with a concentric group of circular passages.

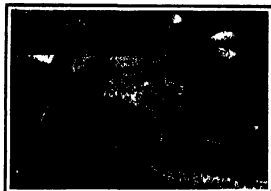
packed in airtight cisterns and sent to the nitrating house where it is soaked for half an hour in a strong mixture of sulphuric and nitric acids. The reaction frees from the cotton a percentage of moisture which if not withdrawn would dilute the nitric acid and affect the character of the product. Sulphuric acid has a strong affinity for water and it extra to the moisture thus having the nitric acid undiluted and capable of doing its full work upon the cotton. The nitrating house is a little like a big steam laundry. (Continued on page 142)



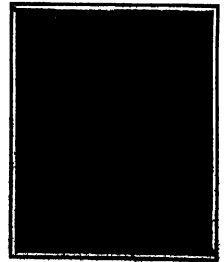
This view shows the important process of washing the cotton in the alkaline bath for the purpose of removing all traces of oil.



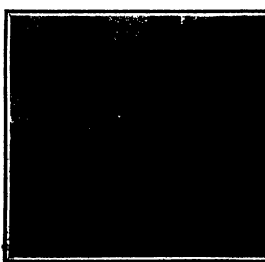
The "pyre" is filled into open tube, and transported to steaming tanks, where it is boiled and boiled to extract the major part of the clinging acid.



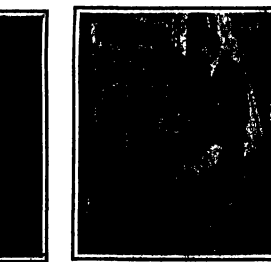
Heating the fibre pulp through the "wet-machines" whence it comes from the rollers in skeins containing about 40 per cent of water.



One of the mechanical appliances in which the "pyre" is mixed with the chemicals, washed, and centrifuged to form "fibre," before pressing it into solid cylinders.



The drying house, where all but a very small percentage of the moisture is extracted by pressure and finally by the use of alcohol to drive the dampness before it and leave enough of the spirit behind to form the moulding solvent.



In the drying house, where the powder grains are stored away and dried to the proper stage, before testing and packing away in airtight tanks.

NEW SMOKELESS POWDER IS MANUFACTURED.



### Notes on Halley's Comet.

Summary of Hall's report.  
Observed at Dearborn Observatory.

Greenwich Mean 1910	h	m	s	alt	log r	log s	Mr
Feb. 8	23	43	44	+14.14	0.1914	0.5886	17
9	23	43	28	+13.28			
10	23	43	12	+12.42			
11	23	43	00	+11.56			
12	23	42	48	+10.70	0.7842	0.4380	17
13	23	42	36	+0.47			
14	23	42	24	+0.18			
15	23	42	12	+0.17			
16	23	42	00	+0.18	0.1664	0.3870	18
17	23	41	48	+0.17			
18	23	41	36	+0.17			
19	23	41	24	+0.17			
20	23	41	12	+0.17	0.1378	0.3039	19
21	23	41	00	+0.17			
22	23	40	48	+0.16			
23	23	40	36	+0.15	0.1177	0.2696	20
24	23	40	24	+0.14			
25	23	40	12	+0.13			
26	23	39	59	+0.12	0.0908	0.2740	21
27	23	39	47	+0.11			
28	23	39	35	+0.10			
29	23	39	23	+0.09	0.0748	0.2768	24
30	23	39	11	+0.08			
Mar. 1	23	38	59	+0.07			
2	23	38	47	+0.06	0.0615	0.2785	27
3	23	38	35	+0.05			
4	23	38	23	+0.04			
5	23	38	11	+0.03	0.0270	0.2770	30
6	23	38	00	+0.02			
7	23	37	48	+0.01			
8	23	37	36	+0.00	0.0012	0.2758	34
9	23	37	24	+0.00			
10	23	37	12	+0.00			
11	23	37	00	+0.00			
12	23	36	48	+0.00			
13	23	36	36	+0.00	0.0012	0.2758	34
14	23	36	24	+0.00			
15	23	36	12	+0.00			
16	23	36	00	+0.00			
17	23	35	48	+0.00	0.0012	0.2758	34
18	23	35	36	+0.00			
19	23	35	24	+0.00			
20	23	35	12	+0.00			
21	23	35	00	+0.00			
22	23	34	48	+0.00	0.0012	0.2758	34
23	23	34	36	+0.00			
24	23	34	24	+0.00			
25	23	34	12	+0.00			
26	23	34	00	+0.00			
27	23	33	48	+0.00	0.0012	0.2758	34
28	23	33	36	+0.00			
29	23	33	24	+0.00			
30	23	33	12	+0.00			
31	23	33	00	+0.00			

During December Halley's comet became bright enough to be seen with telescopes. Several have reported views of it with four and three-inch telescopes. Prof. Philip F. Fox, director of Dearborn Observatory, saw it during the total eclipse of the moon on the morning of November 27th with the 8½ inch finder of the 15-inch telescope.

According to the Harvard Astronomical Bulletin No. 319, Prof. E. B. Barnard photographed the comet with the Bruce telescope on December 23rd, and made upon the photograph a very faint tail in position angle 69 deg with a length of 10 min. The tail was very alien and straight.

According to Prof. E. B. Frost, director of Yerkes Observatory, Halley's comet will be visible to the naked eye about April 1st. It will cross the face of the sun on May 18th at which time the earth will be plunged in the comet's tail for a period of several hours. The time of the comet's transit will be rather unfavorable for eastern observations, but undoubtedly it will be observed from the Lick Observatory in California and through other western telescopes. The comet will be visible to the naked eye about April 1st in the morning sky just before sunrise. After it crosses the sun it will appear in the evening sky just after sunset.

**Atmospheric Electricity as a Source of Power.**  
The utility of the action and action promulgated for utilizing the electricity of the atmosphere, with its tension of many thousand volts, is made plain by the following considerations. According to the most reliable measurements that have been made the strength of the current flowing from the air to the earth is about 100 amperes per square centimeter. The maximum tension may be estimated at 100,000 volts. Hence the lines of current, each one kilometer cannot permanently exceed  $10 \times 10^6 \times 10^6$  watt, which is equal to 1/10 watt. This is equivalent to 1 kilowatt for each 10,000 square kilometers (3,661 square miles) or 1 horsepower for each 3,661 square kilometers (3,661 square miles) of the earth's surface, and amounts to about 60 horsepower for the whole of the German empire, and 50,000 horsepower for the entire surface of the globe.—Pronounced.

What is declared to be the largest and most expensive leather belt ever made for driving purposes has been recently shipped from New York. The belt is 342 feet long, 4 feet wide, three ply thick, and was manufactured at a cost of \$7,300. To make the belt the skin of 840 steers was required.

## Correspondence.

### THE FIRST "ALL-ROUNDER" SHIP.

To the Editor of the Scientific American  
In glancing over your issue of November 30th, I was struck by your correspondent's interesting article, "A Dreadnought of 1863." However, does it not seem more logical to go back a year earlier to Ericsson's "Monitor" which was without doubt the first "big-gun" ship built. The "Roanoke" was really a combination of the "Merrimack" and the "Monitor" being his antagonist, a rased frigate, and resembling "Monitor" in the matter of armor plating. It appears that the "Monitor" was the original dreadnought, and the present mighty vessels of that class are but the design of the great Swedish American engineer applied to ocean-going vessels. For he it is known that Ericsson never intended to employ the "Monitor" vessels for other than coast defense duty.  
Brooklyn, N. Y.  
GERALD REED MORRIS

### HUNTING A RIFLE.

To the Editor of the Scientific American  
I was interested in Mr. Woodland's article, "Hunting a Rifle," in your January 23rd issue, and I would like to mention a detail which I think has been overlooked, viz., the jump of the rifle. This term refers to the angle through which the barrel recoils while the projectile is traversing the barrel. In other words, the rifle recoils upward, and sometimes slightly sideways about a center which is probably a little forward of the butt plate. The correction for this should be applied to both sights, and directly proportionate to their distances from the center of recoil. But as the rear sight is very near this center, and has little vertical movement due to the jump, it is sufficient to elevate the front sight through this angle. (This is done by the manufacturer, notice the high front sight of a six-shooter which always has a considerable jump.) Mr. Woodland's plan was evidently to make the correction on the rear sight only, and while this does not alter the front sight lower, and would correct the angle of jump, it still introduces a constant vertical error at all ranges—an error equal to the vertical movement of the front sight. While this is small, and perhaps negligible for the 0.22 caliber, it would still affect his calculations slightly. The bullet would strike a little high, tending to intersect the line of sight nearer in the ascending branch and farther in the descending branch of the trajectory. Chappaqua, N. Y.  
A. W. BUEZ

### CURIOUS FACTS ABOUT SQUARES AND CUBES.

To the Editor of the Scientific American  
I have discovered the following curious facts about squares and cubes. These facts, in my opinion, are interesting from a scientific point of view besides being of some practical use. I shall be very glad to have you publish them if you deem them of sufficient worth.  
1. To be a square a number must have for its unit's digit one of the digits 0, 1, 4, 5, 6 or 9. This, of course, is well known but I put it down as an aid in understanding the other facts.  
2. To be a square a number, if its unit's digit be 0, 1, 4, 5, 6, or 9, must have for its ten's digit 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, or 1, i. e., the ten's digit must be an even number. If the unit's digit be 6 the ten's digit must be 1, 3, 5, 7, or 9, an odd number. If the unit's digit be 5 the final digit of the number must be 025, 225, 625, or 1225. If the unit's digit be 9 there must be an even number of zeros at the end of the number.  
3. A number, to be a square, must have as remainder when "times are cast out" of it either 0, 1, 4, or 9. If the sum of the digits of a number gives the same remainder when divided by 9, as when the number is divided by 9, this test is easily applied by dividing by 9. To this test I can give an algebraic proof.  
4. A number, to be a cube, must have as remainder when "times are cast out" either 0, 1, or 8. This fact also I can prove by means of algebra.  
I can furnish you with a device, if you desire it, by means of which, the square of the numbers 1 to 25 being given, the squares can be written off in order of fifteen without any multiplications.  
Normal School, Peterboro.  
G. H. KNAB

### MR. PECK AND MR. WOODMAN.

To the Editor of the Scientific American  
After her ascent of the lower north peak of Mount Huascarán in Peru in 1908, Miss A. Peck wrote in Harper's Magazine and in other periodicals and papers the following:  
"It may be regarded as certain that Huascarán is about 22,000 feet, hence higher than Aconcagua, 22,000 feet, and the loftiest mountain known on this hemisphere. If, as seems probable, the height is 24,000 feet, I have the honor of breaking the world's record for men as well as women."

Knowing from her own statement that Miss Peck made no instrumental observations above 16,000 feet on Huascarán, and believing furthermore, Aconcagua to be the highest mountain of the Andes, I decided to test the truth of these assertions by sending expert European engineers to make a detailed, up-to-date triangulation of the two summits of Mount Huascarán.

The only previous known measurement of this mountain was made many years ago, which he said to have given a height of 22,180 feet for the south or higher summit.

Prof. Schrader, who a few years ago made the most authentic measurement yet made of Aconcagua, and M. Henri Vallot, both well known French scientists and heads of the two committees of the Société des Travaux Topographiques de Paris undertook to assist in getting up the expedition, and gave the matter their close personal attention.

M. de Larmont, expert engineer who has carried out important survey work for the above society was selected as chief of the mission. In July 1909 accompanied by two other competent topographers, he started for Peru.

Favored by good weather conditions and assisted as to transport by the Peruvian government they executed a careful and detailed survey from the sea to Yurac and the highest mountainous stations, of the heights of four stations in the Black Cordillera; from each of which they triangulated the two peaks of Huascarán, so that Huascarán now stands as one of the most accurately measured high Andean mountains.

The results are: Height of north peak climbed by Miss Peck, 21,812 feet, of south peak still unclimbed, 22,187 feet. These figures may vary by a few feet but not many when the calculations are finally gone over by M. Vallot for verification.

Mount Aconcagua, nearly 22,000 feet, still remains, as I predicted, as Mr. Martin Conway and other Andean explorers have always maintained, the highest peak of South America.

Blue Peak's highest ascent to date, therefore, stands, north peak Huascarán 21,812 feet instead of 22,000 feet, as she estimated it, and she has not the "honor of breaking the world's record," either for men or women, for my two highest ascents of respectively 22,184 and 22,000 feet, either her from the bottom in the case of women while a number of men have made ascents exceeding her highest.

ALFRED  
PAINT HULLMAN WORKMAN

### Official Meteorological Summary, New York, N. Y., January, 1910.

Atmospheric pressure: Highest, 30.79, lowest 29.20, mean, 30.10. Temperature: Highest 51, date 21st, lowest, 1, date 5th, daily mean, 34.6, date 21st, 21st, coolest day, 18, date 4th, mean of maximum for the month, 38.8, mean of minimum 26.0, absolute mean 32.4, normal, 30.6, daily excess compared with the mean of 40 years, 1.8. Warmest mean temperature of January, 40, in 1880-1890, coldest mean, 32, in 1893. Absolute maximum and minimum of January for 40 years, 67 and 6. Average daily excess since January 1st, 18. Precipitation, 5.61, greatest in 24 hours, 1.58, date, 13th-14th, average for January for 40 years, 3.80. Accumulated excess since January 1st, 1.91. Greatest precipitation 6.15, in 1885, least, 1.15, in 1871. Wind: Prevailing direction, northwest, total movement 9,163 miles, average hourly velocity, 12.3, maximum velocity 56 miles per hour. Weather: Clear days, 7, partly cloudy 10, cloudy, 14, 23, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100. Snowfall, 16.8. Mean relative humidity 77.1. Sleet, 21th. Ice, 6th, 21th, 29th.

### The Argentine Exposition.

The centenary of the Argentine Republic is to be celebrated by an International agricultural exposition which is to take place this year. The exposition is to be opened at Palermo (Buenos Aires) on Friday June 3rd, 1910 and will close on Sunday July 31st 1910. The exposition will be divided into eight sections: 1. Geology, Hydrology, Climatology and Geography in relation to Agriculture. 2. Vines and Plants. 3. Rural Engineering. 4. Vegetable products. 5. Animal products. 6. Means of promoting agriculture. 7. Special section for seeds.

Entrance and exhibition space may be written in Spanish, French, English, German or Italian, and should be addressed to the Secretario de la Exposición Internacional de Agricultura, 4019 Florida 21st. Buenos Aires, Argentina. 2. Vines and Plants and applications for space must be made on the printed forms which the Secretariat of the Exhibition will furnish to all persons who may apply for them at the office of the Argentine Legation at the address mentioned, or to the Argentine Legations and consulates abroad. Entries and applications abroad can be presented at the Argentine Legations and consulates general on the same dates and under the same conditions as any others.

# THE LOWE OBSERVATORY ON ECHO MOUNTAIN, CALIFORNIA, U. S. A.

BY EDGAR LUCIEN LARKIN, DIRECTOR

Do you want to imagine that you can almost near the earth in its turning? No word printed on paper can convey to the mind of a reader this impressive vision along the clouds. When Echo Mountain is within a heavy cloud the darkness is that of night. From sunset until dawn when clouds are excessively dense the jet black solitude is indeed weird. The mind is always profoundly impressed and inattentive times is vivid and alert. In the midst of this quietude and darkness lights are suddenly turned on by a distant hand. Night turns to day. Huge masses of mist and wires in a dynamo in Los Angeles, in rapid revolution, cause the light to flash out on the mountain top. The observatory is on a sharp peak between two immense canyons, deep and wide. The mounts of these canyons cut in horizontal rocks are blacker at midnight than the imagination can conceive.

Who knows the meaning of the word *clear*? None is able to understand what clear means if lying in a valley. Here on Echo Mountain the atmosphere is so clear that the stars seem near enough to touch, and the mountain air wonderfully pure. The stellar hosts glow with a brilliancy all unknown to those living any where near sea level. At all times, save immediately after copious rains, the dust envelope surrounding the earth is visible beneath the summit of the mountain. It covers the entire vista, even out to the sea. To us on the mountain top it seems at times as if every human would choke in this layer of dust. Above us at night, shine Sirius and Vega like huge diamonds, Arcturus and Rigel likewise, and above all the giant star sun (Ansonus), glittering with amazing brilliancy in the distant south and flashing its rays over myriads of wave crests toasting in the Pacific Ocean. This the brightest star in the celestial vault, cannot be seen from the latitude of New York. The magnificent constellations of Orion, Hercules and the Polar Bear are so beautiful that words are powerless to describe them. It is astonishing to behold the apparent nearness of the galaxy. Mountain perspective, the purity of the air and freedom from water vapor during two-thirds of the year combine to form an optical illusion. At times this deep-tinted influence approaches a night mist, and one seems to be walking among the very stars. Here the watching hour is at sunset, a sunset of orange and flower-laden petals and watery waves beyond Round and about the winter solstice the solar disk may be seen standing on the sea. Soon half of the mighty sphere only is visible. The last view is comparable to an arc light. Then one by one the first magnitude stars are seen flashing between distant peaks. Before the last gleam of the sun has vanished, Aldebaran, Altair, Rigel and Procyon illumine the sky.

Many gigantic nebulae, peaks, and summits lift their heads within a radius of a hundred miles of the peak. These lie to the east to the north, and toward the sea in the west. The last view is that of an amphitheater. The south is open even down to the beach. At sunset large steamers look small indeed when compared to the face of the adjacent sun. Artists have journeyed to Echo Mountain to paint the rippling waters to imitate nature on canvas. But brush and pencil are as impotent as words. The view of clouds presented herewith is one of hundreds of thousands. When the first rays of the rising sun strike such cloud banks as these, prismatic colors are seen

that defy description—gorgeous oranges, carnations, and halolotopes beneath. The effect is heightened by the singing of birds over the canyons. As the sun rises above the horizon the blossoming plains below, the domes and spires of Los Angeles and Pasadena, surrounded by acres of roses, with beds of delicate violarias, and rows of flaming red poinsettias, become visible. As the clouds are dispelled, miles after miles of trained cypress, pepper, orange, lemon, apricot, almond, walnut, prune, peach, pear, and nut trees, together with hundreds of long lances, drive and roads adorned on both sides with tall, graceful eucalyptus trees, are seen.

Carpet a floor with jet black velvet, and throw down upon it a myriad of diamonds in wild confusion, and perhaps you may conceive how the densely packed Milky Way appears from the observatory. Millions is a word becoming astronomically obsolete; billions of stars in an expression much more nearly true of the Milky Way. Billions of stars appear in the infinite depths of the Galaxy. These constitute the apparent cosmic floor, the base of Nature, and of the stellar structure. In hundreds of acres, there does not seem to be place for more stars. Millions are finer than the points of fine needles, and these make

or better, over the rim of the eastern canyon. Then millions of stars seem to be pouring into the depths of the rock-bound abyss descending low beneath the observatory. Floods of stellar points flow downward, as seen in the reversing eyepiece.

The observatory on Mount Lowe is 70 feet in length. The peak had to be cut down to admit the foundations. The telescope is a fine Alvan Clark equatorial, with 14-inch objectives. A fine Fraunhofer spectroscopic is here, and many other instruments.

An inclined electric-driven steel cable draws two cars from the depth of Rubio Canyon to the summit of Echo Mountain. The length of this railway is 2,000 feet, vertical ascent 1,325 feet, and time of ascent and descent 8 minutes. The altitude of the observatory is 4,490 feet, and is 4 miles from Pasadena, 18 from Los Angeles, and 18 from the nearest shore line of the Pacific.

The railway from Los Angeles through Pasadena and Altadena lies in between orchards of orange trees. Golden fruit may be seen during five months of each year. Almond trees in bloom and orange flowers and ripened fruit are objects eliciting the admiration of all.

This observatory was founded by the death of living aviators, Prof. Thaddeus S. C. Lowe, in 1894. Dr. Lewis Swift was astronomer in charge until August 11th, 1900.

## A Kinetograph Photo

Among the novel uses for which animated photographs have been utilized, one of the most ingenious is that recently perfected by two English inventors, Messrs. J. Paterson and J. T. Murgatroyd. This is its application to rifle-fire practice, the idea being to render the position of the marksmen known, and to enable him to be more expert in the quick handling of his arm.

The "biocope target," as it is called, is of very simple construction and operation. There are two rollers, upon which is wound a sheet of paper of any desired size, like the films of a camera, the clear space between the two rollers comprising the screen upon which the pictures are thrown. The lantern is placed behind the marksmen in such a way that their movements do not interrupt or interfere with the projection. Immediately behind this paper screen is a self-recording target system, which instantaneously covers the value of each shot to an indicator at the firing point. The value of these hits may be graduated as required. Thus the maximum points corresponding to a bull's eye are given for a fatal shot, another value for inflicting upon the objective a mortal wound, another for temporary dismemberment, and so on. The indicator not only communicates the individual hit, but at the completion of the round, or practice, registers and gives the total value of hits made.

The range can be varied from 15 to 25 yards as desired. The paper screen is destroyed by the bullet perforations is wound up on the second roller. The self-recording mechanism behind the screen is so arranged that it absolutely synchronizes with the movements of the subject in the picture, at which time is taken, so that there is no possible chance of a wrong value being given for an individual shot. The indicators are placed immediately above the marksmen's head of the firing position, and a flash can be produced by the ringing of a bell, as with the ordinary



Grand panorama from Echo Mountain. Looking due south from the Lowe Observatory.

The cloud is exactly over Pasadena. The observatory is shown in the foreground. Los Angeles is to the right of this view.

THE LOWE OBSERVATORY ON ECHO MOUNTAIN, CALIFORNIA, U. S. A.

a pavement of starry sand I never really saw this celestial base until with the telescope up here. After several days of rain, the atmosphere is swept clear of dust. Then one is really within cosmic depths when the telescope suddenly awakes over fathomless interstellar chasms, doors or windows through which one apparently looks into the very bottom of space. These areas are absolutely black. No sensation within the entire range of stellar research, at the hour of the mountain midnight, is so completely overpowering as the vision of an abyss in the stellar floor. Round and about these blackened wastes there are cases where the stars are piled in heaps, raked into windrows, or strewn out into wisps, streamers, filaments, and spray. Yet of all these stellar hosts the faintest point may be white hot sun, and larger than our little star—the sun.

The giant nebula of Orion is a mass of starry lace, a fabric loaded with glittering points.

As astronomical research reveals all objects before it. The reaction of the earth is very apparent on Echo Mountain. With high powers, the stars so racing across the field of view. An incredibly startling effect is obtained when the telescopes are turned toward the Pleiades just as they rise out of some distant peak,

bull's eye target. The pictures, which have been especially prepared for use with this apparatus, are of such a character as to develop the celerity and certainty of the marksmen's aim to the supreme degree. There is a scout scene, the enemy appearing on the picture first at a relative 100 yards range. He drops on his knee and fires point blank at the marksmen a certain number of rounds, corresponding possibly to a complete charge of his rifle magazine. The marksmen using the target raises his rifle immediately the kinematographic scout is seen, but does not commence firing until the scout opens fire, the appearance of a puff of smoke in the picture indicating the commencement of firing.

The scout then retreats at the double to a distance corresponding to 200 yards range, when the same cycle of operations is repeated. The scout then retreats once more until he reaches a point corresponding to 500 yards range, and the same tactics are once more carried through. It will be seen that in each phase the target becomes decreased in size, according to the range, and at the maximum range offers a very small object to the marksmen. Moreover, the fact that the latter has to discharge the whole of his rounds in the short period between the picture scout commencing and finishing firing at each distance, in order to score, indicates that aiming and firing must be accomplished very quickly. Yet it has been found that in the course of but little practice, the marksmen can pick up the range and conform with the firing conditions so expertly that about ninety per cent of fatal shots are got in with each round at the respective ranges.

The invention is also applicable to training in revolver shooting, and for this work an ingeniously suitable film has been prepared. It portrays a conflict with an armed house-breaker. The burglar effects his entrance through the window, under which in the room, a roll-top desk is drawn at an angle. In the course of his work the burglar is disturbed, presumably by someone entering the apartment. He instantly shields himself behind the desk, exposing but his head and shoulders, and cocks his revolver. The burglar's disturber is represented by the marksmen at the firing point, who at the psychological moment the burglar is about to fire, empties his revolver. In this act the burglar presents a fatigued target with his protruding head and shoulders at a few yards range. The burglar having emptied his arms turns to escape through the window, but in the act of dropping from the sill, to which he clings by one

hand he releases his head, and drawing his revolver once more, fires. The marksmen waits until he sees the burglar's head fully exposed and just about to fire, and then shoots. In this case, being to the greater range and the small area offered by the man's head and shoulders is positive, the area offered to the mark-

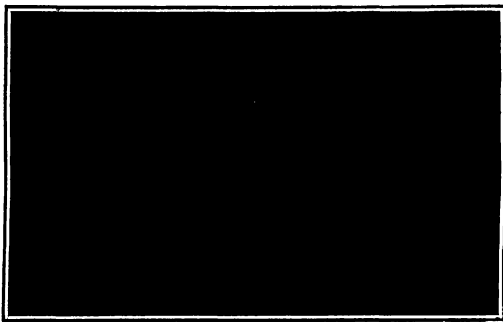
man's aim is somewhat small. The burglar indicator represents in silhouette the head and shoulders of the burglar in the two firing positions, and the vulnerable points of this part of the anatomy are shown on the indicator, so that the firer can instantly determine whether he has struck the target in a fatal spot, has

projected time after time, there being automatic devices for winding and rewinding the spool preparatory to projection. Being electrically driven, a uniform projecting speed is secured, and as it is directly under the control of the marksmen the apparatus is only set in action when required.

The idea can be developed to an indefinite extent, and the variety of pictures that can be used for improving the fire of the marksmen is endless. It can be adapted for individual or company firing, and very realistic scenes can be pictorially produced. The application of the microscope to this phase of military training has often been advocated and indeed attempted, but hitherto it has been found difficult to evolve a practical simple apparatus. The British War Office has investigated and subjected the invention to searching tests, and has ascertained that marksmanship can be so rapidly improved by this means that its general introduction into the service is being contemplated.

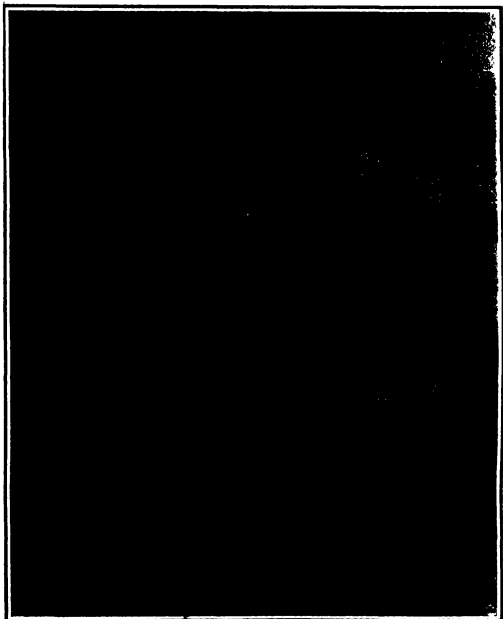
A new method of bonding new concrete to old was described by Mr. Frank Barber, of Toronto, in a recent article in the Canadian Engineer. This consists in placing bags of cracked ice on the last surfaces of concrete placed at night, thus reducing the temperature of the concrete and, consequently, retarding its time of setting, so that on the next morning the surface is still plastic and the concrete then placed will set in one mass with the old. The invention of this scheme is credited to Mr. O. L. Hicks, when he was contractor for a reinforced concrete truss bridge in Ontario. As all of the members of these trusses were of relatively small cross section the ice bags were easily placed in position, at the end of a day's work and it is stated that the method worked very successfully. To what extent it could be applied to heavier work is not as yet known.

Hitherto dew has been used as a beverage only in poetry, by the sun, flowers, and butterflies. It has recently been robbed of all its poetic character by being used for the refreshment of English soldiers. The English administration of Gibraltar, where water is very scarce, now collects dew by the following very simple method. A large pit is dug in the earth and covered with dry wood or straw which, in turn, is covered either with earth or with sheet iron. The straw or wood serves as a heat insulator and effectively prevents the earth or iron coils from the ground to the layer of earth or the sheet iron, above. Consequently this earth or iron coils after sunset much more rapidly than the ground so that its temperature soon falls below the dew point of the surrounding air. Hence dew is formed upon the iron or the layer of earth in very large quantities. The water thus obtained is drained off into reservoirs and after clarification is used for drinking.



The cloud splendors of Echo Mountain south of the Lowe Observatory.

The clouds in this picture are about 1,000 feet below the building. Orange tree orchards are dimly seen in their shadows below.



This is not a volcano in eruption but a forest fire 8 miles west of the Lowe observatory, which fire started in La Canada Valley and traveled in way to the summit, burning for several days. Colored flames and smoke looked like a volcano in action.

THE LOWE OBSERVATORY OF ECHO MOUNTAIN, CALIFORNIA, U. S. A.

indicated a mortal wound, or has either missed entirely or only inflicted a flesh wound.

The projection is automatically controlled. The lantern is electrically driven by means of a small motor, and this is operated from the firing position by means of a small switch. The same picture can be

## MORNING AND EVENING STARS FOR 1910

BY PROF. FREDERIC R. HONEY, TRINITY COLLEGE.

The popular expression "morning and evening stars" while signifying those planets which at different periods illuminate the heavens will naturally include in its study the heavens as the fixed stars whose name indicates that they will be invariably found in the same place on the celestial sphere. The few planets in the heavens may be more fixed in the moon's first observing the stars of higher magnitude whose conspicuous latitudes easily distinguish them from those of varying degrees of lower brilliancy. In this way the heavens may be triangulated visually, and in process of time all the constellations may be easily identified. For such observations a star map is indispensable, and the positions of the stars should be located in right ascension and declination, which are given in the Nautical Almanac. The position of the celestial equator from which declinations are measured may be determined approximately by observing the stars which are near it on the star map, and in the same way the position of the first meridian intersecting the celestial equator at a point from which right ascensions are measured, may also be defined. Following this method seven-eighths of the celestial sphere (at latitude 40 deg.) will come within the range of vision, and the heavens may become an "open book." The distance to the fixed stars are so great that except to the astronomer their apparent positions are not disturbed by the earth's motion; the opposite point in its orbit—a distance equal to about one hundred eighty-six million miles. For purposes of observation the earth may therefore be regarded as the center of the celestial sphere around which the stars appear to revolve once in a sidereal day, which is nearly four minutes shorter than the solar day, a difference due to the revolution of the earth around the sun once in 365.25 days. During this period the earth makes 360° rotations on its axis. As a consequence the stars rise nearly four minutes earlier every day, and during the year the major part of the celestial sphere comes within the range of vision at any one time of the twenty-four hours. The positions of the planets are continually changing, and in order to discover the region of the heavens in which to search for them their situation relative to the sun and earth should be determined as illustrated in Figs. 1 and 2. The plots of their orbits have been printed in the *Scientific American* in the issues of the following dates: March 17th, 1906, February 10th, 1907, February 16th, 1908, and March 6th, 1909, and the positions of all the planets are shown for every day of each year. Together they exhibit the courses of all the planets for the five consecutive years from 1906 to 1910 inclusive. The orbits of the asteroids which are between those of Mars and Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus, and Neptune, are too small to be visible to the naked eye; the largest of over six hundred being not more than five hundred miles in diameter. Several of the orbits are very eccentric and inclined at large angles to the plane of the ecliptic.

**THE SUN AND EARTH.**  
In order to bring the plots of the orbits of the planets within the limits of this page, the orbits of the terrestrial planets, which include Mercury, Venus, the earth and Mars, are drawn to as large a scale as the space permits. Since the diameter of Neptune's orbit is thirty times that of the earth, the plot of the orbits of the major planets, including Jupiter, Saturn, Uranus and Neptune, are drawn to a scale which is very much reduced. In this plot the orbits of the earth and Mars are repeated by the reduced scale, the region of the asteroids or minor planets is indicated and the plots together show the continuity of the solar system. The plate of this paper may be taken to represent that of the ecliptic or the earth's orbit, and if it be placed in a horizontal position a planet which is on one side may be described as being situated above and on the other side as below the ecliptic. The plot of each orbit the full line represents that part which is above

and the dotted line that part which is below the ecliptic. The ascending and descending nodes *N* and *N'* are respectively the points where the planet passes from the space below to that above, and from the space above to that below the ecliptic, and *P*, the perihelion,

by the same distance at aphelion in July. The center of the orbit is at *c*. At a velocity of 18.5 miles per second the earth moves each day in the sun nearly 1,600,000 miles, with an increase of velocity at perihelion and diminution at aphelion; making the complete revolution in 365.25 days. The position of the earth is shown in its intervals of four days at Greenwich, noon, and intermediate positions at daylight and dusk may be interpreted by subdivisions.

## MERCURY

The plane of Mercury's orbit is inclined at a greater angle (7 deg.) than that of any other of either the terrestrial or major planets. Its eccentricity is also greater than that of any of the planets. By the eccentricity is meant the distance from the center of the orbit to the sun (the linear eccentricity) divided by the semi-major axis. The linear eccentricity is 74 million miles, and the length of the major axis is 72 million miles. Mercury's mean distance from the sun is therefore thirty-six million miles with a diminution and increase of 74 million miles respectively at perihelion and aphelion. At perihelion the planet moves at a velocity of thirty-five miles a second, which is diminished to twenty-three miles a second at aphelion. Mercury's orbit is a marked illustration of the first two of Kepler's three laws. First, The orbit of each planet is an ellipse, with the sun in one of its foci. Second, The radius vector (*r*), the orbit radius whose length is continually changing) of each planet describes equal areas in equal times. For example, the area of the triangle with the sun as its vertex, and with a base equal to any part of the orbit

included between the dates of August 30th and September 7th, is equal to the area of the triangle with the same vertex and for which the base is the distance from the date October 29th and October 17th. In conformity with the second law, the length of the base of the triangle is continually diminishing from perihelion to aphelion, and increasing from aphelion to perihelion, which accounts for the rapid variation in the planet's velocity. Mercury's revolution around the sun is accomplished in very nearly eighty-eight days (87.97). This is repeated over four times during the year, and four dates are attached to each position. Owing to the great variation in the planet's velocity the positions are shown for every second day.

## VENUS

The orbit of Venus is inclined to the plane of the ecliptic at an angle of 3.4 deg. The eccentricity is less than that of any other planet, and is barely visible in the plot; the distance from the sun to the center of the orbit is less than a half a million miles. As a consequence, the velocity of the planet is nearly uniform at the rate of 21.9 miles per second. The period of revolution is 224.7 days. The dates of the orbit are those which belong to the first revolution, those which belong to the second revolution, and that part of the orbit included between the positions of the planet for the first and second revolutions represents the distance traversed in seven-tenths of a year.

## MARS

The orbit of Mars is inclined at an angle of 1.85 deg.; and the center *c* is 13.2 million miles from the sun. The mean orbit velocity is fifteen miles per second, and the mean distance from the sun is 141.5 million miles. The period is 1.88 years.

## THE MAJOR PLANETS.

The inclination of Jupiter's orbit is 1.3 deg., with a linear eccentricity of 38.5 million miles. The planet's orbit velocity is 13.5 miles per second at a mean distance of 483.2 million miles. The period of revolution is 11.86 years. The direction in which the planet is seen from the sun is shown at intervals of twenty days.

Saturn's orbit is inclined at an angle of 2.5 deg. The eccentricity is nearly fifty million miles; and the mean distance is 968 million miles. The planet's velocity is 9.6 miles per second. (Continued on page 147.)

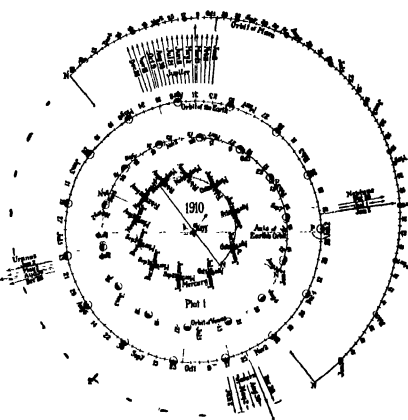


FIG. 1. POSITIONS OF THE PLANETS.

is the point of the planet's nearest approach to the sun. A line joining the points *N* and *N'*, the line of nodes, is the intersection of the plane of the planet's orbit with that of the ecliptic. To avoid confusion, only a portion of this line is represented, except in the case of Mercury's orbit.

It is obviously impossible to represent the diameter of the planets by the same scale. Even those of the giant planets Jupiter and Saturn would shrink to mere points. The same may be said of the sun itself in Plot

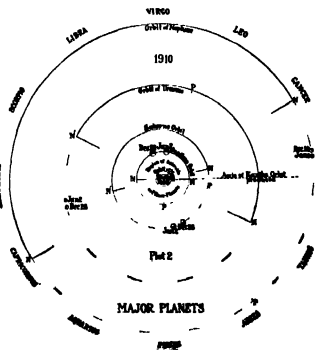


FIG. 2. PLANETARY ORBITS.

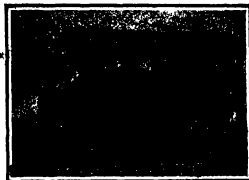
2, but in Plot 1 its diameter (866,400 miles) would be correctly represented by a measurement a little more than one-half of *c*, which is the linear eccentricity—the distance from the sun's center to the center of the earth's orbit.

The earth's mean distance from the sun (92.9 million miles) is diminished by a little over one mile and one-half million miles at perihelion in January; and increased

# CURIOSITIES OF SCIENCE AND INVENTION

## A STREET RAILWAY AUTOMOBILE

A steam automobile street railway has recently been installed for regular passenger service between Mandeville and New Orleans, La. The cars are each fitted with a 50-horse-power steam engine and generator, making them practically automobiles on rails.



A STREET RAILWAY AUTOMOBILE

The line is 16 miles long, and steam motive power has been installed in order to reduce the cost of maintenance. Two street automobile cars built as an experiment have proven so successful that more are now under construction. Each car is built to seat twenty-two people, and the expense of maintaining the line under present power permits of a large saving over the ordinary electric street railway maintenance.

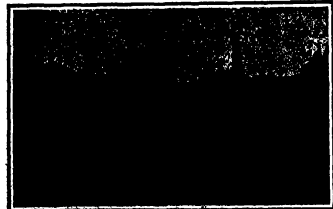
## GALILEO'S TELESCOPE

Just about three hundred years ago, Galileo exhibited a telescope which he had used in studying the moon and planets. This was not the first telescope



THE FIRST ASTRONOMICAL TELESCOPE.

ever built, but it was however the first telescope to be used for astronomical purposes. The accompanying engraving shows how the telescope looked. This type of telescope differs from the present astronomical type in using a concave instead of a convex eyepiece, so that by a combination of but two lenses, the object glass and eyepiece, he was able to view objects right



STREETCAR POWERED BY MOTOR-DRIVEN STEAM WHEEL.

side up, whereas in the present astronomical telescopes objects are inverted. The Galilean type of telescope is now used in the ordinary opera glasses. With this crude instrument Galileo was able to establish the fact that the moon is a round body with its surface broken by mountains, that the Milky Way is composed of countless stars, that Venus and Mercury have phases like the moon, and that Jupiter has a number of satellites (four were discovered by Galileo). To him Saturn appeared to be a triple planet. This puzzling phenomenon was explained fifty years later by Huygens, who discovered that the planet was surrounded by a flat ring.

## AN EGG WITH A TAIL.

Occasionally, for one reason or another, a hen will lay a "soft-shelled" egg, but one with a tail, like that shown in the accompanying photograph, is decidedly unusual. This egg was evidently the last of



AN EGG WITH A TAIL.

a clutch, and, though the hen lacked material for a shell, she had a surplus for the shell lining, or egg pod.

## A FROZEN TELEPHONE CABLE

The accompanying photograph shows the effect of ice pressure on a twenty-five pair lead telephone cable. The cable was located in a three-inch iron pipe, and was run underground for fifty feet between the terminal pole and the manhole in the street. Owing to a fault in the construction of the street, the pipe did not drain into the manhole, which allowed water to collect in the pipe for a distance of about twenty feet.



THE EFFECT OF ICE OF A TELEPHONE CABLE.

Last winter being an extremely cold one caused this water to freeze in the pipe, the pressure crushing the cable out flat. In several places there was a quantity of small stones and gravel in the iron pipe and so strong was the pressure of the ice in the pipe that these stones were forced into the armor of the cable as though driven in by a hammer. The wires had the usual paper insulation, and the extreme pressure forced the wire through the paper at several of the conductors. The cable was dented and crushed for a distance of twenty feet.

## MOOSE SCOOTER.

Some years ago an amphibious craft was invented at Great South Bay Long Island which could be maneuvered on ice as well as in the water. It was in reality an iceboat built with a flat-bottomed hull which would float the craft in case of encountering a blow-hole or break in the ice. The sport proved to be very fascinating, particularly the peculiar sensation of plunging off the lee into the water and then climbing back again. The "scooter," as this craft is named, is now undergoing further development. Instead of depending upon the sail for power, Mr. Nat Roe of Peabody, L. I., has equipped his scooter with a 10-horse-power motor and a spurred wheel, which dips into the lee and drives the craft along. He claims to have traveled over the ice at a rate of 80 miles per hour. There is no means for propelling the boat while in the

water, but the sport consists in leaping gaps in the ice by the sheer momentum of the craft. He has leaped gaps of over a hundred feet in this way. The motor scooter possesses an advantage over the motor sled, because it cannot sink in case of breaking through the ice, and over the sail scooter in the fact that under its own power it can be taken home over snow-covered roads when the owner knows tired of the sport.

## LARGEST PROJECTILE IN THE WORLD

The accompanying illustration is of more than ordinary interest from the fact that it shows the largest



LARGEST PROJECTILE IN THE WORLD

and heaviest projectile in the world being the huge 3600, armor-piercing shell fired from the United States government's great 14-inch rifle. This giant shell and powerful gun are considered two of the most destructive and deadly engines of war in existence. The monster 16-inch rifle the only one built so far is now at the Sandy Hook Proving Grounds, and has only been fired a few times. The huge shell of steel can be hurled a distance of 20 miles or more and weighs 2 100 pounds. The powder charge is nearly 500 pounds. The cost of firing one shot reaches in the neighborhood of \$1000. It is not probable that this type of gun will be used but rather the 14-inch for the main coast defenses of the Panama Canal and possibly the Philippines. This formidable and long range weapon though capable of firing so tremendous a projectile is too costly and fires too slowly for modern warfare.

## INTERLOCKED MOOSE ANTLES

A curious relic of a fatal battle between two bull moose is shown in the accompanying illustration. The battle was fought in the Keweenaw Peninsula Alaska a few years ago. An Indian was attracted to the spot by the noise of the encounter, and on seeing the two antagonists he found that one had broken his neck during the struggle and lay dead on the ground while the other, partly exhausted was making desperate efforts to free his horns. After killing, the latter moose the Indian tried in every way to separate the antlers but found this to be impossible. The interlocked antlers are soon to be exhibited in the collection of heads and horns in the new Administration Building of the New York Zoological Park. The larger pair of horns has a spread of 69½ inches and the other of 62 inches.



RELIC OF A BATTLE BETWEEN TWO BULL MOOSE

# THE DESIGN FOR THE NEW QUEBEC BRIDGE

COMMONPLACE IN APPEARANCE AND COSTLY TO BUILD

The collapse of the huge cantilever bridge at Quebec on August 29th 1907, was at once the greatest and most fatal disaster in all the history of bridge construction ancient or modern. When that colossal structure broke down under its own weight and disappeared from sight in the St. Lawrence River more than eight human lives and many millions of dollars were lost in the space of a few brief minutes. Naturally the disaster caused a great loss of prestige to the engineers who were connected with the work, and discredited bridge engineering as carried on in the West. The great prominence of this bridge was due to the fact that it embodied the longest span (1,800 feet) yet attempted. This was longer by 90 feet than either of the two large spans (1,770 feet) of the great Forth Bridge in Scotland, which is at present the largest bridge in existence.

An investigation of the facts by a Royal Commission revealed as the cause of the collapse faulty design of the compression members. It was ascertained that the

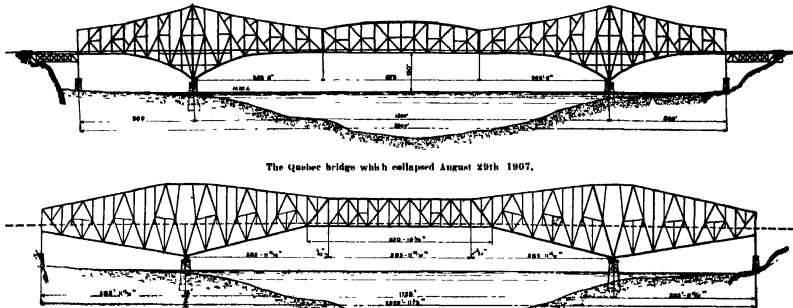
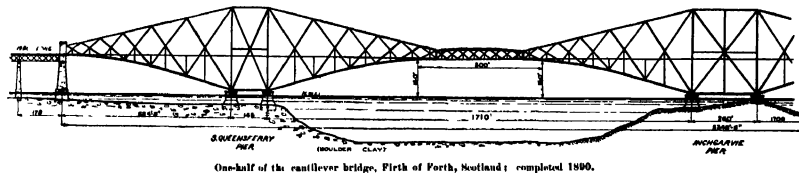
slightest attempt to combine the beautiful with the useful. The faulty structure which collapsed had at least the redeeming feature that the outlines were structurally and aesthetically correct, and although the Forth Bridge has been made the subject of much criticism by the artist and the architect, it must be regarded as having distinct claims to beauty when compared as on the accompanying page, with the new plans for the Quebec Bridge.

It would seem, however, that the Board has some doubts as to the merits of its own work, for it now invites competitive plans from contractors which are to be filed by May 1st, 1910, the plans to be drawn at the contractor's own expense. But if the Board has taken eighteen months' time and spent \$150,000 to produce the present plans, the public will naturally ask, how can the Board expect responsible firms to furnish them with new plans in one-sixth the time and for nothing?

The lay of the land at the Quebec crossing is such as to make it almost certain that a thoroughly rigid

pressure during high gales, and particularly in this position necessary to insure safety during erection. The bridge which failed was only 67 feet wide, and this small width was a large contributing cause to the twisting of the structure during erection, which preceded its collapse. This important fact does not seem to have been given sufficient consideration, for the new structure has a width of only 88 feet, or one-twelfth of the proposed length of span of 1,768 feet, as against one-fourteenth in the Forth Bridge.

It may be claimed that experience with American practice in cantilever railroad bridges has shown a proportion of 1 to 20 to be sufficient, but it is a question how far their immunity from disaster during erection was due to the fortunate circumstance that no strong winds were experienced—such as frequently occur at the Forth Bridge, and may occur at Quebec—which would have twisted its trusses out of shape before they had been connected up. Moreover, we believe it is a fact that there is not a large cantilever railroad bridge on this continent over which trains



The unsightly structure now proposed by the Canadian government for the Quebec bridge.

## THE DESIGN FOR THE NEW QUEBEC BRIDGE

management of the work was so badly organized, that the blame could not be definitely fixed on any one quarter, and in the end the Canadian government had to assume the whole money loss. The work was eventually taken over by that government, and it was decided to rebuild the structure. For this purpose a commission of three engineers was appointed, and it was publicly announced that the new bridge would be the finest and strongest structure of the kind ever seen.

The Commission was appointed about eighteen months ago. In the interim the preparation of the plans has cost about \$150,000, and as the result of its eighteen months' work the Commission has produced the very commonplace design, herewith illustrated, regarding which there is a general professional opinion that both structurally and aesthetically it is distinctly inferior to the Forth Bridge, which was completed nearly twenty years ago.

If the bridge is built according to the proposed plans, it will not only be of inferior merit, considered from the bridge engineer's standpoint, but will also be the ugliest bridge of monumental proportions among those hitherto proposed or built. It presents the appearance of a monstrous mesh of triangles and straight lines. From abutment to abutment there is not one graceful line in the whole structure, not the

suspension bridge could be built more cheaply, more quickly and with less risk of failure during erection. On the other hand, if a bridge of the cantilever type is selected, it should be one of the first duties of the Board to see that one of the contributory causes to the weakness of the bridge that failed, namely, its extremely narrow width, is removed. But, so far from doing this the authorities have not only prescribed certain limitations of width, but they have actually contracted for the new stone piers upon this restricted basis, and it is a fact that the width is such as would put a serious limit upon any bridge engineer who attempted to design either a cantilever or suspension bridge with the necessary cross-sectional width to give the proper rigidity during erection, and subsequently when express trains are crossing the structure. Those of us who knew the late Sir Benjamin Baker, the builder of the Forth Bridge, and were familiar with his cautious methods, will agree that, could he have been consulted, it is more than probable that he would have disapproved of the present design, as he would surely have condemned the old one had it been submitted to him. In his Forth Bridge the width at the base of the towers is 180 feet for a span of 1,700 feet which gives a ratio of 1 to 14. This large width at the towers is necessary to insure the stability and lateral rigidity of the entire structure under wind

pressure, due to the narrow width, would become excessive, and at faster speeds would create danger of derailment. On the other hand, the advantages of great width in proportion to length are shown by the fact that the fast and heavy express trains in the north of Scotland pass continually and with absolute safety over the Forth Bridge at their full speed of from 50 to 60 miles an hour connected up.

Another element in the specifications upon which bids are invited which is punishing engineers and contractors is that the maximum height of the towers has been limited to 390 feet above the masonry. It really would seem as though the board of engineers who drew up the specifications were desirous to put weight into the new bridge merely for the sake of having it there, for it is well understood that the stresses in the top and bottom members of a truss, and therefore the amount of steel necessary to meet those stresses, increase inversely as the depth, and hence the shallower the bridge, the greater will be its weight. In view of these facts, it is extraordinary that in the specifications the maximum height of the towers above the masonry should be limited to 390 feet. This height in the Forth Bridge is 350 feet, and in the Quebec Bridge which fell it was 514 feet. The

(Continued on page 149.)



## RECENTLY PAINTED INTERIORS

**Of Interest to Farmers.**  
**CATTLE-STANCHION**—**M. MURPHY, Grand Rapids, Minn.** This improvement allows the cow great freedom of movement, and so possibility of freeing herself from it, as the horse-like spur on the ring which locks the stanchion bar to the rod precludes her from so doing. At the same time the inventor provides for loosely joining the bar at both ends to the upright rod so it can swing freely about the rod without becoming detached.

**Of General Interest.**

**CRATE**—H. E. CUMMINS, Cedarburg, Wis.  
This crate has a bottom, side walls, end walls and corner posts, each post constructed of sections arranged side by side and having abutting faces, with one of the sections of each post secured to the side walls and the other section of each post secured to the end walls, and bolts or other equivalent device securing the sections of each post together.

**SHOW WINDOW GUTTER AND FLUSHING** - U. S. Taffra, Davenport, Iowa. The aim of this invention is to provide a gutter which may be disposed under the glass front of the window, and which is adapted to carry away all liquids resulting from condensation and otherwise. Ventilators are provided to maintain a proper temperature within the window frame and the space between the

**MENTAL STAIRCASE.**—J. F. STAIRER, New York, N. Y. The improvement refers especially to the means for attaching the treads of the stairs to the staircase or stringers, the object being to provide a simple arrangement for this purpose, and in which no fastening device passing through the treads are required. The treads are expected to be made of stone, cement or similar material.

**PUNGER LUBRICATING RING**—J. RUTH, New York, N. Y. This invention relates to a device adapted to keep the plunger of an elevator lubricated in an efficient and thorough manner. It provides means whereby

**DISINLAY STAND.**—**L. T. PAI** HENGBERG, New York, N. Y. The object here is to provide a stand for use in stores and other places, at once especially designed for displaying belts and like articles to permit convenient selection by a customer as to style and size, the belts or other articles being securely held in place against abstraction by unauthorised persons and at the same time to permit a saleswoman to readily remove any belt selected by a customer.

**PIANO ACTION**—**F H Long, Los Angeles**  
To render the action noiseless, the hammer flange, key board, key or other member of the action is provided on one face with a recess into which is fitted and secured a piece of cork projecting beyond the face of the member, and in the case of the hammer rail the key frame a strip of felt is secured to the rail and the frame, to overlap the projecting portion of the piece of cork.

**TURPENTINE-STILL.**—B. HART, Jacksonville, Fla. In the present patent the inventor claims an improvement in turpentine stills, and particularly in means for purifying the gum, etc., by straining the same to avoid the deleterious effect of wood, bark and other impurities being permitted to remain in the

### Hardware.

**SCISSORS AND RHARS.**—A. E. CHAPIN, Bristol, Conn. In this invention the blades can quickly be adjusted by the employment of a spring device on the pivot, to produce the necessary tension between the blades, and thus bring the cutting edges into correct cutting or shearing position, the arrangement being such that the parts of the spring device are locked in the adjusted position, thus preventing the parts from gradually working loose and hence insuring proper working of the shears or saws at all times.

**Household Utilities.**

**ADJUSTABLE WARDROBE-BED.—R. E. CARLTON, Latonia, Ky.** The purpose in this case is to provide a folding bed especially adapted for the use of persons suffering with asthma, and so arranged as to permit them to breathe the outer air while the body is protected within the house. The bed may be adjusted to any height of window, and to any desirable size of window opening.

**REFRIGERATOR**—L. DORAN, Port Arthur, Ontario, Canada. This refrigerator is adapted to be cooled by a cooling liquid rather than by the employment of ice, the construction being such that the liquid is distributed over a evaporating surface and air is caused to circulate over the surface to evaporate a portion of the water and thus lower its temperature.

### Machines and Mechanical Devices.

**STONE-CRUSHING MACHINE.**—J. L. MYERS, Cedar Rapids, Iowa. This invention is an improvement in that class of jaw and cone crushers in which a stationary jaw and movable jaw are arranged opposite each other and the latter is operated by an eccentric to

impart a compound movement. It is an improvement in the means for adjusting the movable jaw toward and from the fixed jaw as required to vary the size of the product.

**CRANKING MACHINE.**—J. F. Mendenhall, New York, N. Y., July 1, 1907. Serial 600,942.

**CRUSHING-MACHINES**—J. L. MITCHELL, Cedar Rapids, Iowa. This invention is an improvement in machines in which a movable jaw is arranged opposite a fixed jaw, the two being so placed as to form a hopper or wedge-shaped receptacle for the material to be crushed. The movable jaw may be adjustable for crushing finer or coarser. Mr. Mitchell has also invented an improvement in the type of coal, ore and stone-crushing machines in which a movable jaw is pendent from a shaft operated by an eccentric shaft, and arranged opposite a fixed jaw so that they form practically a V-shaped hopper for reception of material to be crushed.

**REVERSING MECHANISM.**—J. M. GOLTZ, Greensboro, N. C. In operation the washing machine is provided with a revolving washer and with gearing at its opposite ends for turning the washer, the gearing being operated alternately to turn the washer in opposite directions so that the strain of turning the washer in one direction is borne at one end of the machine, and the strain of turning in the other direction will be borne by the opposite end of the machine.

ground and apparatus for use in the following conditions, shoals and the like in rivers, harbors and water-ways, which require little power for operation, and which can be adjusted for use with shoals or other obstructions of different shape.













# Four-fifths of Your Blacksmiths' Troubles

come from a faulty fire. How does your fire burn? Is it sometimes hot and sometimes not? Does it come up very fast and then lose its heat? Is the red flame edged with blue? Is the coke formed dark-colored and crumbling? Do you have trouble getting good solid welds? Then—**You're Using the Wrong Coal. You SHOULD USE**

## WEBSTER SMITHING COAL

Try these simple tests on the coal you are using:

- 1 Crack open several pieces the size of your fist. If little white seeds or broken deposits appear between the layers, they are sulphur. It is bad for iron and steel and absolutely prevents good welds. Webster Smithing Coal is practically free from sulphur.
- 2 Look at the coke formed around the edge of the fire. If it is dark and crumbly the coal contains much dirt. Webster Smithing Coal burns with a hard gray coke, of even grain, which when burned over, makes a hot, steady fire.
- 3 A blue edged flame indicates sulphur. Webster Smithing Coal, being practically free from sulphur, makes a pure red and yellow flame.
- 4 Look closely at your coal-pile and see how many pieces of dull gray slate you can pick out just from the surface of the pile. Slate is not hot and burns and it keeps the coal with which it is mixed from burning freely. Webster Smithing Coal contains no slate. It is pure coal.
- 5 If your fire is hot in spots, or for a short time, and then "drips out," the coal is low in heat efficiency—is not adapted to smithing. Webster Smithing Coal maintains a high, clear heat for a remarkably long time, because it is all pure heat-giving coal, specially selected and specially prepared for smithing.

It pays to use Webster Smithing Coal. Saves dollars on coal bills. Avoids fire troubles and welding troubles. Improves the quality and quickness of work.

Webster Smithing Coal is all mined from one basin in Cambria County, Pennsylvania, right in the heart of the region noted for high grade smithing coal. Sold by local coal dealers anywhere in the United States and Canada or shipped direct in bags, in bulk or car load lots. Write for prices and further particulars.

PENNSYLVANIA COAL AND COKE COMPANY

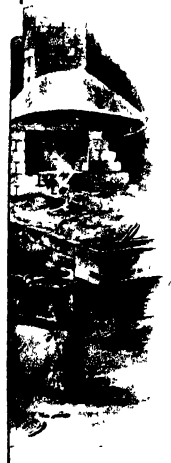
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# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

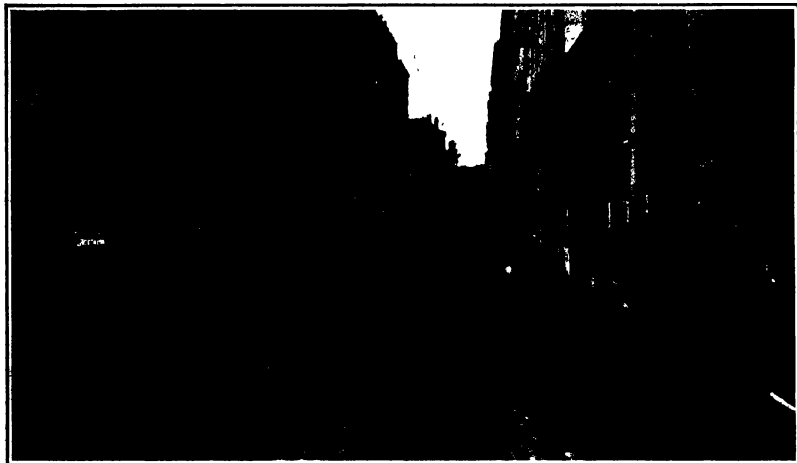
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**A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS**

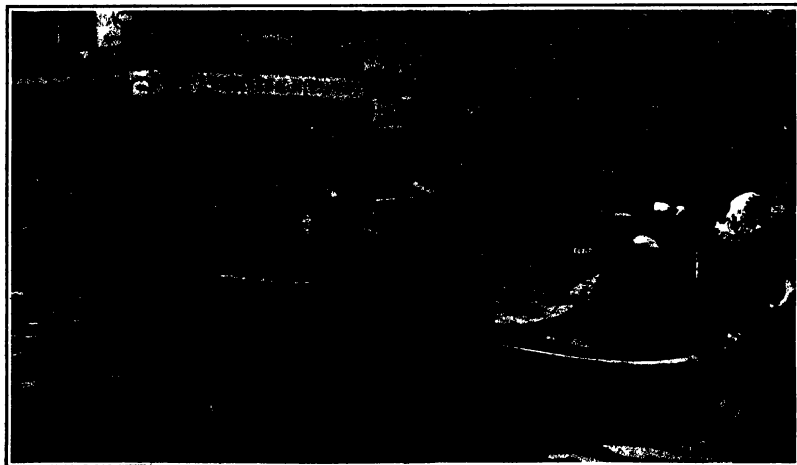
Vol. CXL—No. 8.  
ESTABLISHED 1844.

NEW YORK, FEBRUARY 19, 1910

10 CENTS A COPY.  
\$3.00 A YEAR.



The Rue Murore was converted into a Venetian canal.



Soldiers and sailors assisting in relief work.

THE GREAT FLOOD OF PARIS.—[See page 164.]





# DID GREAT BRITAIN HAVE THE FIRST "DREADNOUGHT"?

## THE "ROYAL SOVEREIGN" OF 1862

### BY PERCIVAL A. HISLAM

THE *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN* for November 20th, 1909, contained a description by Mr. William Roerum, Washington of the "H. S. Roanoke," a converted steam frigate, which he claimed to have been the original prototype of the Dreadnought. The date of the conversion of the Roanoke from the frigate into the three-turreted ironclad was 1862, but England, the birthplace of the twentieth century Dreadnought, has a similar instance to the Roanoke, but which dates from the previous year—1861.

The Royal Sovereign, as this ship was named, was built as a three-decked sailing ship of 3,144 tons and 120 guns and in 1860 had been fitted with engines of 800 horsepower. The sides of the "Royal Sovereign" after conversion were composed of three feet of solid timber strengthened internally with diagonal iron bands and clothed externally to some distance below the waterline with 5½ inch rolled armor plate. On top of the plating was laid upon the deck beams, and over the iron plating was laid the deck proper, consisting of 6-inch and 8-inch oak planking. From the sides of the ship the deck sloped upward to the outer circumference of the turrets, which thus appeared like circular forts on the apex of a glacis.

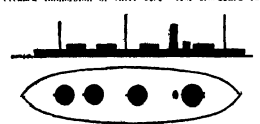
The following description is taken from a contemporary account in the London "Times" newspaper: "His Majesty's ship 'Royal Sovereign,' upper deck, we find that her light from bulwarks, 3 feet 6 inches in depth are thrown down outlooks on hinged stations. On the roof of the deck stand the four turrets and pilot house, funnel, sailing, hatchways, and ventilating shaft. The foremost turret standing five feet above the deck, has its top covered by a grating, and is surrounded by a handrail, and thus affords a deck promenade for the officer of the watch or lookout man. The single-gun turrets are 4 feet 3 inches above the deck."

It was claimed at the time that the method of mounting and working the guns in the "Royal Sovereign" was superior to anything which had then been applied in any American turret ship. In American designs the turret rested upon the upper deck, and was thus liable to any displacement, but in the English vessel the base of the turret was on the lower deck, and the elevation was therefore much less likely to be disabled by a hit. The American method resulted in the turret being nine feet above the deck while in the "Royal Sovereign" only five feet or four feet three inches, as

the case might be, was exposed to the enemy's fire. Further, the latter ship's turrets could be worked by poles of the "Royal Sovereign" reached only just above the top of the funnel. In freboard there was little to choose between the two, while in the method of placing the turret the British ship was decidedly superior.

Much, therefore, as we owe to America in the development of modern navies, and more especially, perhaps, in the introduction of steam navigation and in the correct placing of turret in modern battleships, I think it must be admitted that Great Britain was the first to possess a prototype of the modern "Dreadnought."

I have been unable to procure a picture of the "Royal Sovereign" for reproduction, but the accompanying elevation and plan will convey an idea of the appearance of the ship.



Converted British three-decker "Royal Sovereign" changed to an all-steel gunship in 1862

WAS THIS THE FIRST "DREADNOUGHT"?

maintained at seven feet after conversion. The cost of the work was \$699,000.

The "Royal Sovereign," besides having been, at any rate, one of the prototypes of the modern "Dreadnought," is interesting as having been the first vessel in which the turret principle of Capt. Cowper Poles was put into practice. The first vessel actually built in England embodying those principles was the "Captain," an ironclad of 4,272 tons, which captured in the Bay of Algeiras on September 6th, 1870.

According to contemporary accounts, the speed of the Roanoke was only 6 knots. This is inferior to the "Royal Sovereign's" speed by 6 knots. The latter vessel again, had four turrets to the Roanoke's three, both ships had 1½ inches of side armor in a rolled plate, although up till then most American ships

had been armored on the inferior laminated system, both ships were practically useless for the three poles of the "Royal Sovereign" reached only just above the top of the funnel. In freboard there was little to choose between the two, while in the method of placing the turret the British ship was decidedly superior.

Much, therefore, as we owe to America in the development of modern navies, and more especially, perhaps, in the introduction of steam navigation and in the correct placing of turret in modern battleships, I think it must be admitted that Great Britain was the first to possess a prototype of the modern "Dreadnought."

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It may be mentioned that Russia launched in 1867 the "Admiral Lazareff," a three-turreted ironclad of 3,154 tons, very similar in general design to the Roanoke. She carried in each turret two 15½-ton guns, but it was not till later to alter this to one 15-inch for each in view of the diagonal (or echelon) arrangement adopted in the British "Dreadnought" cruisers of the "Invincible" type. It is interesting also to note that Italy led the way with this system of mounting with the "Dulio" (1870), Great Britain following with the "Inflexible" in 1881, and with four other ships a few years later. The only American example of this system of mounting were seen in the "Maine" and "Texas," the first with two 10-inch and the second with one 12-inch gun for each turret.

The arrangement of the turrets in the British "Admiral Duperre," launched in 1879. This ship had two turrets on the center line and on the same level aft, and a turret on each beam just forward of the funnel. The guns had a freboard of 27 feet 6 inches, giving them a great command of fire. Each turret contained one gun of 15½ inches caliber, and if another centerline turret be added forward of the two beam turrets, it will be seen that the arrangement of the "Dreadnought" is almost exactly reproduced. It is strange how often we are confronted with the fact, in reading old books and other records, that there is "nothing new under the sun."

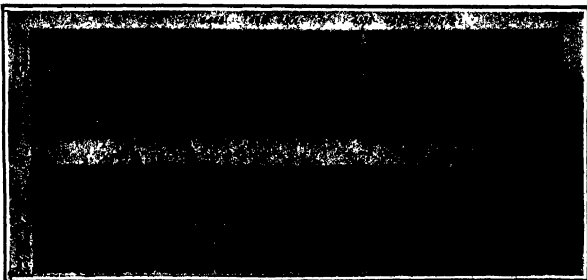
# OTHER WORLDS IN SPACE

## BY PROF. S. A. MITCHELL, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

If one should look at the heavens on any clear moonless evening, he would see them shining with countless orbs of light apparently millions in number. It is a fact that from our earliest education we have regarded the terms "numberless" as the words of the seashore, and "countless" as the stars, "anonymous with quantity almost infinite, but if by the stars we mean those that can be seen by the naked eye (and the expression originated thousands of years before the invention of the telescope), our ideas have been utterly at variance with the truth. The unaided eye cannot see millions of stars as is commonly supposed, nor yet hundreds of thousands for at any one time we could count only two to three thousand separate stars, and in the whole heavens there are less than six thousand which can be seen with out a telescope. A small glass, however, increases this number largely, and with greater and greater telescopes more and more stars are brought to our ken. It is estimated that the astronomer of today can see and photograph upward of a hundred million of stars. Each of these is a sun shining by its own light, the new astronomy tells us that thousands of these suns

have systems around them possibly resembling our own solar system, and it is not outside the bounds of probability that many of the planets about these distant suns may be inhabited by people who live and move and think. Indeed, this earth of ours, of so much importance to us, is a most insignificant speck in the infinite limitless universe.

These distances we are from them are however very small, and the change of position in the sky so slight from year to year that they could not be found without the most careful measurements. So from this point of view the stars are fixed, and the constellations appear the same now as they did to the Chaldean shepherds thousands of years ago. Still the motions are there none the less. The old astronomy was able to follow the motions of the stars, at right angles to our line of vision, but the new astronomy is able to supplement this by a knowledge of their movements toward us or away from us in the line of sight. The revelations of this new branch of astronomy are revolutionary in their importance, and of the greatest moment to our ideas of the universe as a whole.



PHOTOGRAPH OF THE SPECTRUM OF  $\alpha$  CENTAURI, JANUARY 24th AND 25th, 1906.

The upper spectrum shows a velocity of 36 miles per second away from the earth, and the lower one of 48 miles per second in the same direction.

Astronomers by their meridian circles have been able to measure the exact positions of these distant so-called "fixed" stars, and have come to the conclusion that in spite of their names, there is none of them absolutely fixed in space, i. e., without motions. The movements of these heavenly bodies at the enormous

distances we are from them are however very small, and the change of position in the sky so slight from year to year that they could not be found without the most careful measurements. So from this point of view the stars are fixed, and the constellations appear the same now as they did to the Chaldean shepherds thousands of years ago. Still the motions are there none the less. The old astronomy was able to follow the motions of the stars, at right angles to our line of vision, but the new astronomy is able to supplement this by a knowledge of their movements toward us or away from us in the line of sight. The revelations of this new branch of astronomy are revolutionary in their importance, and of the greatest moment to our ideas of the universe as a whole. The principles underlying the use of the modern spectroscopic method applied to the stars are given in *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN*, December 24th, 1906. There is required for this purpose a powerful telescope, and a most accurate spectroscopic attachment, whose dimensions must be kept absolutely uniform during the two or three hours that may be consumed while the photograph is being taken.

(Continued on page 176.)

## CONCRETE CONSTRUCTION ON THE PANAMA CANAL

HOW THE EIGHT MILLION CUBIC YARDS OF CONCRETE IS HANDLED

To the untrained eye the work which has hitherto been done on the construction of the Panama Canal necessarily appears more or less confused and chaotic. Although over one-half of the excavation has been completed, very little if any of the prism of the canal has been excavated to its finished dimensions, and the

works in the aggregate will probably represent the largest mass of masonry of any kind whatsoever hitherto placed in a single engineering work of magnitude. It is questionable whether an exception would have to be made even in the case of some of the famous masonry aqueducts built in ancient times, and the

Gatun on the Atlantic side of the Isthmus, one at Pedro Miguel and two at Miraflores on the Pacific side, and the great spillway in the center of the Gatun dam for carrying off the surplus waters. All of the locks will be 110 feet wide by 1,000 feet long with a depth over the sills of 45 feet. The three locks at



Note the wooden forms in which the walls are molded.

Building concrete side wall—Gatun Spillway.



Millions of cubic yards of sand are required for the concrete.

Sand cranes and pockets at Itaboa.

outline of the completed work is therefore irregular and ragged.

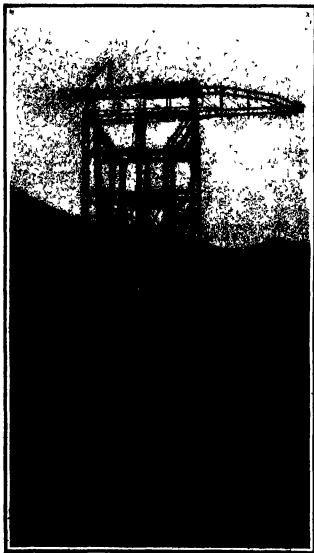
Some few months ago, however, the work of putting in the permanent concrete structure began, and from now on this great work will begin to take on definite shape and present visual evidence of its massive and permanent character.

The masonry works will not only be the largest of their kind ever built, the locks and spillways being on a scale of unprecedented proportions, but these

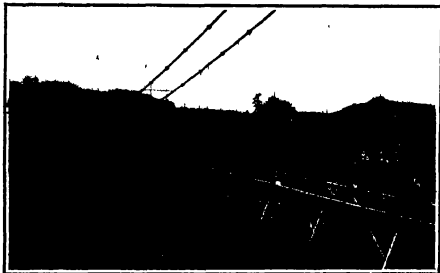
Pyramids or the Great Wall of China are not to be seriously reckoned in comparison with difficult by draught works of the character of those on the Panama Canal. In the accompanying series of photographs, which were recently taken on the Isthmus, one is able for the first time to gain some impression of the massive character of the concrete and reinforced-concrete structures the construction of which is now proceeding with gratifying rapidity.

The concrete work embraces six huge locks, three at

Gatun will form a continuous structure which, with the piers forming the approaches at each end, will have a total length of 5,900 feet, the whole work forming one huge monolithic mass of concrete. The Pedro Miguel lock with its piers will be 1,400 feet, and the two locks and piers at Miraflores will have a length of 2,800 feet. Into the construction of these locks will enter about 8,000,000 cubic yards of concrete, and of this 800,000 tons will consist of cement. The spillway through the Gatun dam has been cut through a low



Huge cantilever crane for placing concrete at Pedro Miguel locks.



New 800-foot highway suspension across Culebra Cut.



Stone for the concrete is brought from twenty miles east of the canal. The stone crushers at Malien.

CONCRETE CONSTRUCTION ON THE PANAMA CANAL.

hill situated at about the center of the dam, and with in the excavation thus formed is now being laid the deep concrete flooring, the massive retaining walls and the piers between which will swing the gates for regulating the height of the water in that great artificial island now which will be formed by the dam.

It can readily be understood that the enormous and expeditious laying of 3,000,000 cubic yards of concrete in structures of this kind is a matter for a special plant of great size and capacity. At Gatun about 4,000,000 cubic yards of concrete will be employed. The crushed stone and the cement for this concrete is handled in a special way. The crushed stone comes from Puerto Bello, a small hamlet about 20 miles east of Colon along the Atlantic coast. The rock is taken from the quarry by steam shovels and sent by gravity to the giant crushers, and thence by gravity to the barges in the harbor. From this point it is carried to Cristobal at the Atlantic entrance to the canal and thence, in the old French channel, to the docks at Gatun. Here it is unloaded into storage bins by giant grab buckets, operated from above; and would be taken two sets of towers on either side of the channel.

The sand is brought from Nom bre de Dios, about 40 miles along the coast from Colon. It is taken from the sand pits by clamshell buckets, loaded into steel barges and taken to Gatun, where it is unloaded by a process similar to that of unloading the crushed rock. The cement is now being shipped from New York. At Colon the cement is transferred to barges and taken via the old French channel to Gatun and unloaded to the storage yards. The rock and sand storage piles have a capacity of about 100,000 cubic yards, while the cement yard accommodates about 100,000 barrels. From these storage buildings, the rock, sand, and cement are delivered through valves to charging cars running underground. These cars, which are electrically operated, carry the materials to the concrete mixing machine located near the locks' site and discharge it direct to the machines. After the concrete is mixed, it is dumped into buckets set on flat cars, and the cars are run to position under the wide railways spanning the locks' site and from these railways the buckets filled with concrete are swung to position on the locks under construction.

The general principles upon which the plant at the locks on the Pacific side is designed are the same as those employed at Gatun, the mechanical details have been varied to meet the local conditions.

The latest report of the work, namely, that for December last, shows that during the month the total work of excavation amounted to 2,618,681 cubic yards and that the total canal excavation of all kinds amounted to 2,611,681 cubic yards. The material placed in dams, mainly at the Gatun dam amounted to 340,610 cubic yards, and during the month 57,286 cubic yards of concrete were built up in place.

#### HALLEY'S COMET

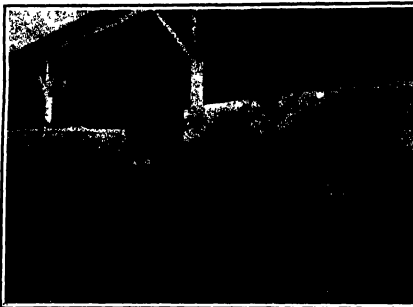
Some interesting measures of Halley's comet, made with the micrometer of the Yorks 40-inch refractor, are published by Prof. Barnard in No. 865 of the *Astronomical Journal*. With this comet's telescopic comet was quite an easy object, and the measures should be good, but, as Prof. Barnard suggests, the edges of such a nebulous body are not easy to measure.

The measure extended up to November 26, 1909 when the estimated magnitude was about 11.0, and the comet showed a condensation of some 7 inches diameter. The diameter of the whole object was 41 inches, and possibly an ill-defined nucleus was seen, but this feature was very doubtful. From September 17th to November 14th the measured diameters reduced to miles ranged from 16,400 to 200 miles the mean being 12,800 miles, or about  $\frac{1}{10}$  times the earth's diameter.

At the December 1909 meeting of the Royal Astronomical Society reported in No. 418 of the *Observer*, the Astronomer Royal announced that a photograph secured with the Reynolds reflector at Helwan, on August 24th, shows the comet's image. Its position agrees within 0.12 in R.A. and 1.7 min in declination with the position calculated from the Cowell Greenwich orbit corrected by the Greenwich observations. Messrs. Kelling and others are to be congratulated heartily upon securing the first known photo-

graph of the comet. In No. 85 of the *Gazette astronomique*, Signor Pio Ignanelli discusses the probable encounter between the earth and the comet's tail in May next. At 10 A. M. (G.M.T.) on May 18th, the comet will pass the descending node of its orbit, while the earth will pass the same point 18 hours later for an encounter between the tail and the earth to take place, it is shown to be necessary that the latter should be 22,100,000 kilometers (13,732,277 miles) long and that its breadth should be such that it extends from its axis earthward, 400,000 kilometers (248,540 miles).

The accompanying chart shows approximately the



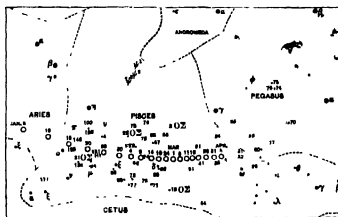
The sluiceways, etc., for rapidly emptying and filling the locks are of unusual size.

#### WOODEN FORMS FOR GATUN LOCK CONCRETE

apparent path of the comet, according to Mr. Crommelin's phenomena up to April 12th - Nature.

#### The Occasioned Scarcity in Coal

Prof. B. W. Parr and Mr. Perry Barker of the University of Illinois have made an elaborate study of recently issued gas in coal, which is published in a bulletin recently issued by the university. As a result of their study it seems that two active processes are set up immediately upon the liberation of the coal from the vein. The first is an exudation of hydrocarbons, mainly consisting of marsh gas ( $\text{CH}_4$ ), the second is an absorption of oxygen. There can be little question, moreover, that the alterations proceed simultaneously. There are present in the gases from all the samples of fresh drillings, notable quantities of methane, ranging from 16 per cent to 46 per cent of the various gas volumes. At the same time the oxygen present drops in a very positive manner, in some cases even reaching the vanishing point. That this transpiration of gases is interdependent and is of the nature of an osmotic exchange can hardly be affirmed as an explanation of



APPARENT PATH OF HALLEY'S COMET FROM JANUARY 26 to APRIL 12, 1910.

the phenomenon. On the contrary, there seems to be evidence that the gases operate independently of each other.

In the case of samples of marsh gas the exudation of  $\text{CH}_4$  seems to have spent itself in those samples held in laboratory containers for two years. In no case is there evidence of further liberation of this gas, even with thorough application of the vacuum. An exudation of the gases from two-year-old samples shows no marsh gas present. The completion of this exudation would seem to be reached after two months, though it is well to note that by forcing, as with a vacuum, the two-month-old sample may be made to

yield more methane, though in relatively small quantities. On the other hand, the avidity of the coal for oxygen seems to be pronounced at the very beginning of the exposure of the freshly-mined material, and when there are a number of days while the air and the agreement seems to exist between the incoming and the outgoing marsh gas, still there are more cases where the absorption of oxygen is pronounced without any evidence of marsh gas being present. In all cases the oxygen-nitrogen ratio shows a positive diminution of the oxygen from the normal ratio of approximately 1 to 4 with practically no evidence of marsh gas being present. It seems fair to conclude, for the present, that there is no necessary connection, at least of a strictly chemical nature, between the exudation of marsh gas and the absorption of oxygen.

Again, the liberation of  $\text{O}_2$ , while very active in the first few days after removal of the coal from the ground, diminishes in amount quite rapidly till, after the second month, there is very little of this in evidence. The activity of the coal for oxygen, on the contrary, seems to be of longer duration. Samples collected June 1st, 1908, were tested in May and June 1908. There is marked absorption of oxygen in the sample after two days' exposure in the flask to normal air, while in the second, with five days' exposure, a still further reduction in the oxygen ratio without accompanying evidence, also, it should be noted, of marsh gas, was obtained. A marked avidity for oxygen was shown after two years from the time of collecting.

These facts have a direct bearing on the topic of deterioration as substantially defining the limit as to time of that form of alteration upon the matter of spontaneous combustion of hydrocarbons for the most part is practically complete at the end of two months. These facts have a bearing also upon the matter of weathering, and indirectly upon the matter of spontaneous combustion. The absorption of oxygen is undoubtedly closely associated with both of these phenomena. The studies upon the weathering process coincide with these studies in place, namely, that the weathering process is of oxidation extends over an indefinite length of time. Moreover, while under normal conditions there is effected but a very slight oxidation and loss of fuel value, the conditions are favorable, as in the case, for bringing about a very rapid combination with oxygen upon an increase of temperature.

How far this absorption of oxygen is a chemical reaction, or low combustion resulting in  $\text{CO}_2$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , and how far an absorption into the molecular structure and composition of coal must be left for study.

#### Byzantine Pearls

In the Museum of the Louvre in Paris lies a collar of pearls at the point of death! Its deathbed is a plaque of velvet, and it is the large collar that was part of the personal attire of Thiers and once belonged to his wife. It is simply set and has no artistic value, its material value, however, is estimated at \$60,000. It consisted of 141 pearls, three rows, the total weight of which is 2,067 grains, the three largest pearls of the collar weighing 38, 35, and 31 grains respectively. The collar was purchased for Thiers by another degree of its later, and in the course of the present decade it will become as dingy as a much-worn wreath of straw.

Why? Because pearls keep their incomparable amenity only when worn by women and come into habitual contact with the gentle, soft, and warm skin of the wearer. When, for instance, General Auguste died it was found that her magnificent strings of pearls were likewise in a permanent decline, and for the reason that she, for many years she had not worn them on her bare neck (which fact was explained by her age) but only around the fabric of the neck of her waist. At that time a treatment of baths in sea water was prescribed for them by experts, and for several months, under obvious necessary precautions, they were sunk into the sea and thus recovered their old luster.

When Thiers died, a collar of pearls is taken from the neck, where, subject to a temperature of 40 deg. C. approximately it has lain for hours, and is laid upon the marble plate of the dresser, which is perhaps only 20 deg. C. in temperature, to speak, a

(Continued on page 174.)

## Correspondence.

## MR. HINEMAN'S PROBLEM.

To the Editor of the *Scientific American*:  
Your correspondence which replies to my problem very lately has not studied the question very thoroughly. There is absolutely no doubt as to the possibility of the solution for taking any single number; it is quite evident that the remaining 14 numbers will make 7 pairs, each one of which will be taken number forming a definite combination of three. What one number is capable of doing, every other is likewise. So that certainly prove that 7 combinations as told are possible. The question is, can this be done in any other similar problem be worked out without a haphazard shifting till you get the solution?  
Find the game. The problem is all right.  
New York city. HENRY H. HINEMAN, Ph.D.

## OBSERVATIONS OF A NEWTON IN FLIGHT.

To the Editor of the *Scientific American*:  
I have again no mention in the newspaper of the meteor that fell west of Corrington, North Dakota, on January 16th. It was seen for seventy miles south of Streeter, North Dakota, and passed over us with great speed. It moved in the ground about seventy miles north of Streeter. The heat produced was so great that for forty-eight hours no one could approach it closely notwithstanding the fact that the ground was covered with snow and it was frozen to a depth of four feet. When the meteor passed over our heads from a southerly direction to northeast, it shone most brilliantly. The noise which it produced can be likened only to that of a very large cannon ball in flight. The diameter of the meteor is 56 inches. It has been taken out and sent to Hamack.  
J. J. HARR  
Streeter, N. D.

## SOME STRANGE ARTIST INSTINCTS.

To the Editor of the *Scientific American*:  
Two items in your science column of January 15th, 1910, interest me. That that cat in the ground about Streeter and elsewhere who are scientists in your own city and elsewhere who have held doggedly that the special sense of this wonderful ability to go back home is not a special sense but the result of some sort of observation, although the cat may be blind folded. They even claim that homing pigeons find their way back by observing "the line of the country". This latter instinct is, I think, the only one that is developed to a much greater extent in some individual than in others, there seems no justification of the denial to those fewer creatures of a faculty of orientation or "homing" which is common to all birds in small degree. There are many instances where the return has been made over a route very different from that of the outgoing journey and could not have been influenced by the topography, even if it could have been observed.

The other instance is that of the magpie which was found of rubbing tobacco and its ash into its plumage as mentioned by the writer in *Kosmos*. This is of special interest to me because I had made a similar observation on a bluejay—a relative of the magpie—and had never so far been able to confirm it from any other sources. Fortunately as long ago as 1891 I recorded it in my little book "The Story of the Birds" (Appleton) from which I venture to quote "I saw him (the Jay) engaged in the walnut tree one day in late summer in a manner that made me fear that his bath had not been sufficiently official. He would place off a leaf, lift his wing and rub it into his plumage. I saw him do it repeatedly, and since walnut trees have a pungent odor and are disagreeable to insects, I feared that he was endeavoring that he was trying to get rid of. If this theory should be correct here was a case of a bird using perfume with at least good intentions." (Page 343)

It is well known that I have and some mammals will rub their bodies into or against something that is strikingly odorous, for the sake of the perfume only in which they seem to delight; but these two are the only instances that I know of where birds are recorded as doing the same. It would be interesting to hear from any other instances—if there are any, as is likely.  
JAMES NEWTON BASKETT  
Mexico, Mo.

## RE-ARMING OUR WARSHIPS.

To the Editor of the *Scientific American*:  
In a letter to the *Scientific American* of September 18th, 1908, a correspondent, Mr. A. B. Wingfield, suggested the re-arming of our "Connecticut" class of battleships with four 14-inch guns in place of the eight 12-inch that are now carried in the main battery of this type. The Editor's comment at the time was that the greater weight of 14-inch gun equipments on the beam would necessitate too costly structural strength changes to justify the change. That the 14-inch armor protection would be too light for these complete main-

and that the increase in dead weight would sink the already low armor belt even lower in the water. A previous letter appeared in your issue of August 18th, 1908, and since then changes of this character have been under consideration.

I know that if the *Scientific American* takes up this matter, its influence will be brought to bear on naval men, the object in view, of course, being to make designers of the "Connecticut" type and windwardships of the "Georgia" class. The younger officers in the navy whom I have questioned in regard to this matter are unanimously in favor of these improvements.

As armed at present, the "Connecticut" and "Georgia" classes are not as efficient as a comparatively small additional expense could make them, and in view of the increased superiority of the all-gun type of ship, it seems worth while to consider how it would be possible to so reconstruct the above types as to make them more formidable against dreadnaughts.

The pre-eminence function of a battleship is to concentrate the greatest efficiency and power possible in a single vessel. The armament of the "Connecticut" class consists of four 12-inch eight 8 inch, 12 7-inch, and twelve 3-inch, of which four 12's, four 8's, four 7's and eight 3's can fire on broadside. The "Georgia" type mounts four 12-inch, eight 8-inch, twelve 6-inch, and twelve 3-inch, of which four 12's, six 8's, six 6's, and six 3's can fire on broadside. Now to consider the plan to dreadnaught it would be necessary to mount one 12-inch gun in place of the two 8's in each of the beam turrets keeping the improvements as they are.

As the 12-inch guns are too small for battle range, and too slow for turret defense, they could be substituted by the 14-inch rapid fire which are now being mounted on all our new dreadnaughts. With say eighteen of these and a few more 3 pounders in place of the present twenty 3-inch guns, the change is complete and you have a vessel the equal of the "Michigan" type which are really powerful dreadnaughts on "Connecticut" displacement.

For the "Georgia" class the same renovations could be made, except that the four superposed 8's would have to be retained and the six additional 8's omitted. The "Idaho" and "Mississippi" could be similarly renovated. Under this arrangement the "Connecticut" of the two classes would now be "Connecticut" eight 12-inch and eighteen 14-inch with a broadside fire of six 12's and nine 14's "Georgia" six 12-inch, four 8-inch, and six 14-inch with a broadside fire of six 12's, four 8's, and six 14's. Then our two "Idaho", four "Georgia", six "Connecticut" and two "Michigan" and two "Idaho" would mount 12 14-inch guns in stead of 48 at all present, and would practically be a dreadnaught fleet. The benefits from these changes are as follows:

1. A homogeneous broadside giving greater concentration of fire at battle range.
2. A simpler system of aiming and fire control, with only one range to get and only one officer of gun (excepting the four "Georgia") in the main battery.
3. A greater efficiency of ordinance resulting from more uniformity in ammunition and consequent saving in handling.
4. A better organization for the quicker delivery of shell.
5. An opportunity offered to hold former 7-inch gun crews in service for turret crews.
6. The limitation of unwieldy and inaccurate mid-battery with large crews necessary to their service in exposed position.
7. A smaller number of men in action at the same time and behind heavier armor (i.e., turret) at battle range.
8. An increase in the efficiency of torpedoes defended by a gun more practicable in every way than the old caliber, which was ineffective at 3500 yards and required the same number of men to handle it.
9. The lightening of the armor belt and bringing it higher out of the water, where it belongs.
10. The placing of the entire main battery behind turret armor.

Now as to the cost. For one battleship of the "Connecticut" class to be improved as shown above, the expense would consist chiefly of the price of four 12-inch and eighteen 14-inch rifles, and the remodeling of the 6-inch turret and handling room. The 6-inch gun could occupy positions behind the old 7-inch barbette, on the gun deck the 14-inch casemates (eighty-eight) on the main deck and new mounts for the superfluous 12's. I do not believe that the structural part of the ship would need strengthening in any way. Moreover, all these discarded eight, seven, six, and three could be mounted on smaller erections, where they would do the work required of them, and thus money on new construction could be saved.

I think that you will agree with me in saying that with these improvements made, our pre-dreadnaught type will not only possess far greater efficiency than they do now, but also that they will be able to stand

in the first line of battle with future dreadnaughts. The real question is this: Is this greater efficiency worth its cost? In view of the slight difference in the cost of maintaining in commission a "Connecticut" cut and a "Idaho", I think it is, and the *Scientific American* can do a lot toward making these paper changes realities.  
HAROLD M. KIRBY  
Brooklyn, N. Y.

[In publishing this interesting study of a much mooted question, we would point out that it seems to be the unanimous opinion of naval men in all navies that the real solution of the problem is to build a "Connecticut" cut and a "Idaho", I think it is, and the *Scientific American* can do a lot toward making these paper changes realities.]

## The New Supplement Catalogue.

The publishers of the *Scientific American* have issued a new catalogue of the *Scientific American* Supplement in which 20,000 articles are listed. Many of these articles have been translated from foreign publications which are ordinarily inaccessible to English-speaking readers. Many of them also are papers and figures that have appeared in the *Scientific American* and are available only in a few large public libraries. The catalogue is all carefully indexed so that the best information on any particular technical subject may be found in a few moments. The catalogue will be sent gratuitously to all who apply for it.

## The Current Supplement.

The current Supplement, No. 1781 contains some remarkable pictures of the Seven Wonders of the World, together with a good article on them. "The Frictional Dislocation" is a very interesting article of an article which will interest the farmer. Another installment of the Munroe and Hall paper on "Combustion and Explosion, a Primer on Explosives for Coal Miners" is published. Some new use of paper are described. Mr. D. A. Artine contributes an article on Chinese calendars. Since the Chinese have just celebrated their new year, this article comes out with particular timeliness. If a Humphrey's paper on the International Commission of the Year 1900, Leonardo da Vinci, perhaps the only truly all-around man of the world, is the subject of an excellent article by Edward P. Duffell. The Wright Invention is summarized and illustrated.

## Comments Due to Modern This Year.

In addition to the *Scientific American*, our comments are due to pass through perdition this year. The first is known as Tempel's second periodical comet, discovered in 1873 July 2nd at Milan. Its period is about 54 years, and it was rediscovered in 1877, 1894, 1899, and 1904, making its perihelion passage, on the last occasion, in November. It should therefore return this coming spring. D'Arrest's comet, discovered in 1861, is the second object, and is due to return during the summer of this year. Its period is about 64 years and it was re-observed at its return in 1867, 1870, 1877, 1890 and 1897, but it escaped observation, being unfavourably placed in 1900.

Mr. Lyne, who gives these particulars in No. 418 of the *Observatory* also recalls some of the historic occurrences which have coincided with the returns of Halley's comet.

## The Scientific American Fourth Dimension Book.

The readers of the *Scientific American* have hardly forgotten the *Scientific American* Fourth Dimension Book for the last time. The book, which was published in the year of 1900 was awarded to Lieut Col Graham D'Arrest, U.S.A. His essay was published in the *Scientific American* for July, 1900, and three others were published in 1901, 1902, and 1903. The judges followed in successive issues.

It seemed to the judges that of the 246 essays submitted, a certain number showed more than passing merit. Inasmuch as the subject of the Fourth Dimension is by no means extensive, the publishers decided to instruct to Prof. Henry P. Manning of Brown University, one of the judges, the task of selecting some of the best contributions. This Prof. Manning has done. These essays together with the essays which were awarded the prize and honorable mention, are now published in a book which has just been issued by H. S. G. & Co., publishers of the *Scientific American*. An elaborate introduction is provided by Prof. Manning, in which he critically and yet simply discusses four-dimensional geometry and gives an excellent bibliography of the literature on the subject. The book can be ordered through any newsdealer or book-seller.

The deepest coal seams mined in America lie about a depth of 2300 feet south of the coal mines in England are descending seams at a depth of 1600 feet while coal seams are carried on at a depth of about 4500 feet in Belgium.

# THE GREAT BY THE PARIS CORRESPONDENT



The Seine near the mist.

The inundation of Paris made many of the streets of that metropolis as navigable as the canals of Venice. The highest point reached by the water was 31 feet, 4 inches above the normal at the Pont Royal. Not since the historic flood of 1615 has Paris been visited by such an inundation. On January 25th the waters began to fall, and the city for the first time began to feel safe. Even as it was, the Seine was swollen to thirty times its ordinary volume and the current raced to the sea twenty times faster than usual. The banks have been overflowed for from half a mile to a mile on either side. That vast and wonderful sewer system which figures so dramatically in Victor Hugo's 'Les Misérables' and which has been dwelt upon time and time again in every guide book of Paris, and that intricate system of subways which handles the vast traffic of Paris, have both played their part in this catastrophe. They served as conduits for the flood tides as they are, they were unable to cope with the turbulent waters. Pavements were pressed upward, and the water bubbled up into the streets. Apprehension was felt for the safety of the monuments of the French capital, an apprehension which is not yet settled. It seemed almost certain that their foundations would be sapped. It speaks well for the work of French engineers that none of the twenty-four bridges that span the Seine was carried away, and that it was found necessary to close but eight of them. On the other hand, these bridges undoubtedly helped to dam the waters and to aid in the city's inundation. It speaks well for the architects and masons of the middle ages that the famous Cathedral of Notre Dame

should have stood in a lake for days and days without suffering injury. Many of the historic buildings of Paris were flooded, but fortunately the art treasures seem all to have been preserved with little or no injury. When the saturated ground dries out and contracts, it may be that some of the buildings will settle and possibly collapse. The Louvre, although flooded, was still able to serve its function of housing its priceless paintings and its statues. The great shops could not be opened on account of the water. The famous 'Foire aux Francs' still gave its performance, but it used raffles as it did back in the days of Molière.

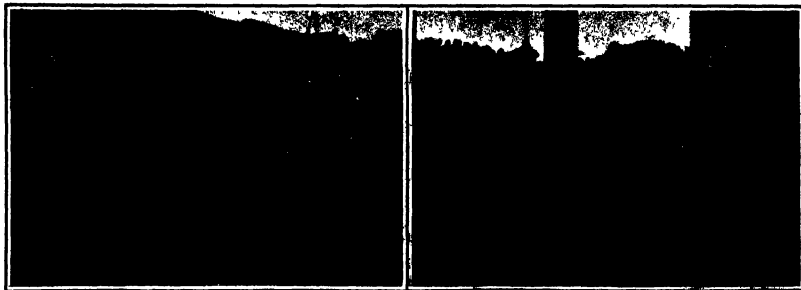
It was but natural that the Chamber of Deputies should have continued its sessions. An exhibition of fright on the part of the legislators would undoubtedly have heightened the public terror. As it was, the members were ferried across the square to the chamber. The old Latin Quarter and the Champ de Mars, the Rue Royale, the Boulevard Haussmann, the Place de la Concorde, the Champs Elysées were swamped. Naturally the subways suffered heavily. Only the Gare du Nord seems to have escaped. The station of St. Lazare seems to have suffered most severely. As it was, the suburban traffic was entirely cut off, so that the spurring of the Gare du Nord served simply to give the frightened populace a place of questionable refuge. Fortunately the waters rose so gradually that the inhabitants of the sewers (the theme of many a thrilling French short story) and of the basements and sub-cellar of Paris were able to escape. Suburban towns lying somewhat lower than the city have suffered. The breaking of a dyke completely inundated

Gennevilliers. Its community of 10,000 persons was driven out by ten feet of water.

Paris may now be considered safe from water, but the danger from sickness still prevails. The stench of the stagnant water and of the drowned animals will undoubtedly continue for days. The Paris health authorities will find difficulty in coping with that situation.

The actual cause of the flood has not been fully revealed. Some explain it geologically by arguing that the basin of the Seine had become saturated during a mild winter, characterized by heavy rains and little evaporation. It will be safer before accepting this theory to await the investigation of the municipal engineers. Only when the floods have subsided and a careful examination can be made, will the full measure of the disaster be ascertained. The accounts of bursting sewers and subways and caving streets point indubitably to the necessity of reconstructing much of the famed Parisian sewer and subway systems. It will probably be months before Paris will conduct business as it did before the flood.

The engineering aspects of the flood have been sufficiently discussed in our editorial of February 8th. For that reason the results of this Parisian inundation need not here be dwelt upon again. It is clear that either the channel of the Seine must be widened by dredging, by the removal of river piers, or by the inordinately expensive construction of an artificial waterway around the city, a waterway which will serve the purpose of diverting the surplus of the Seine in time of flood and of discharging it below the city.



The godolferm of Paris.

A cart-ferry in one of the streams.



**Reclamation of the Friedeburg Peat Bogs.**

The total area of the peat bogs and moors of Germany is more than 3,000 square miles, of which about two-fifths are situated in Hanover and Schleswig-Holstein. The Prussian government possesses in East Prussia nearly 40,000 acres of upland moors, of which about 10,000 acres, known as the Aarich, or Friedeburg bogs, have for some years been the scene of an attempt at reclamation, which is being carried on with great skill and energy, though unfortunately with a degree of secrecy which makes it difficult to ascertain the exact facts, although the undertaking is of the greatest and most general importance. It is contemplated not only to reclaim the moors for cultivation and settlement, but also to make them the source of energy which will supply electric current, the light and power to the surrounding region within a radius of thirty miles. Electric light, thus obtained, is already supplied to Runden, Wilhelmshaven, and several other cities and towns, and large quantities of ammonia, hydrogen sulphide, and other gaseous products are sold for use in various industries. The district to be reclaimed lies between the Rins-Jabbe canal on the north and the Nordgerings-Jahn canal on the south, between which a connecting canal will be constructed. Short canals will connect the system with the canals of the older moor estates to the westward. In all 35 miles of new canals will be required. Their construction will necessitate the stripping of about 600 acres of moor, from which it is estimated that nearly 250 million cubic feet of peat will be obtained. If this work were done by the old Dutch method, the canals would not be finished in several decades, during which period the price of peat, already very low in this district, would continue to decline. Both of these difficulties were avoided simultaneously by the adoption of electrical methods, by which the work of excavation is carried on very rapidly and supplies its own fuel. In the center of the moor is a boiler plant, which consumes peat extensively. The problem of course, will be still more simplified when a method of producing electricity directly from heat is developed.

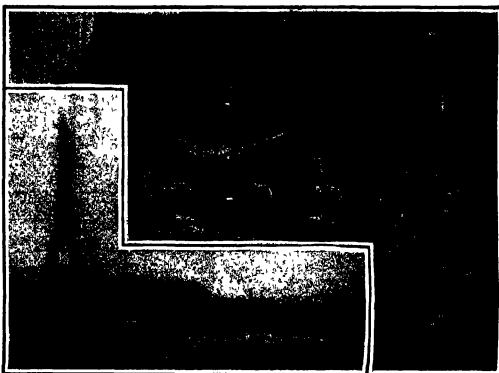
The first settlers established on the Friedeburg moor will carry on what is known as surface cultivation, and will at the same time gather peat, which they will sell to the electrical company, the charter of which runs for seventy years. As the high moor is thus cut down, the method of cultivation will be gradually changed to that which is employed in the low-lying moors of Holland.

All of the energy is supplied from the central power station at the Siemens-Schuckert Company, situated

on an island in the bog at the intersection of two main roads. From this point wires, supported by poles, radiate in all directions, supplying light and power to the whole country for many miles around. The main canal is bordered by several rows of poles and wires, one for the telephone, another for the post-digging and agricultural machinery, a third for the high-tension alternating-current long-distance service. Current was to be supplied to the surrounding cities in November of this year. The station is equipped with two steam turbines of 1,500 horsepower each. The great plans used for the excavation of the canals have long been driven by electricity. The peat dug each day is compressed by electric presses into 4,000 blocks, which when dry are used as fuel in the central

when dried will furnish 1 1/2 million tons of fuel peat. This amount of fuel alone would supply the central station, producing five million kilowatt hours of energy for sixty-six years. On each side of each canal, a strip 165 feet wide is to be cleared of peat for reclamation and settlement. The peat thus obtained, added to that obtained from the canals, would enable the capacity of the station for the duration of its charter to be tripled.

An idea of the cost of the electric light and power thus furnished may be gained from the contract recently concluded with the town of Bunt, in which the price of lighting current is fixed at about 10 cents and that of power current at 5 cents, per kilowatt hour. At these rates a 16-candle carbon incandescent lamp or a 40-candle metal filament lamp would cost about 1/2 cent per hour and an arc lamp from 2 to 8 1/2 cents per hour according to its candle power. Thus the Friedeburg bogs are to be utilized as a field for colonization, as a source of light for the surrounding country within a radius of 30 miles, and as a cheap and reliable source of power for all the cities and farms of East Prussia. Although all the hopes which have been built on the enterprise may not be fulfilled, it is already certain that the reclamation and cultivation of bog land has entered upon a new and promising stage of development in consequence of this application of electricity. It must be admitted however, that on the Friedeburg moor the conditions are especially favorable. The land is in general level, and it has already been successfully dried and smoothed by burning. The roads through the moor are already bordered



Hence from the great Paris flood.

station. In the gas generators 40,000 cubic feet of fuel gas and 20 pounds of ammonium sulphate are obtained from 100 pounds of peat. The combustion of this quantity of fuel gas generates 273 horsepower hours of energy, while the sale of the ammonia compounds pays a good interest on the capital invested. Contracts for supplying light and power to most of the surrounding towns and cities have already been signed. The duration of the contract in most cases is forty years, while the charter of the Siemens-Schuckert Company will remain in force seventy-five years. The area assigned for cultivation and settlement comprises about 17,000 acres. The digging of the canal requires the peat to be removed from a strip about 150 feet wide, so that the construction of the 18 miles of canal will involve the stripping of 850 acres. The average depth of the peat is 1 1/2 feet. In view of the superficial stratum of 10 inches, which is comparatively worthless, the digging of all the canals will produce about 247 million cubic feet of peat, which

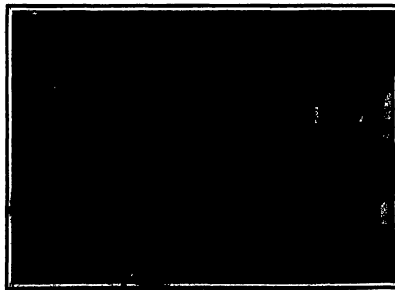
with rankly-growing grass

**Peary a Rear Admiral.**

Commander Robert E. Peary has been made a rear admiral of the highest grade and with maximum pay, so far as the Senate can accomplish such recognition of his services. The bill recently introduced by Senator Hale was favorably reported from the Committee on Naval Affairs and promptly passed without discussion.

The bill authorizes the President to appoint Commander Peary a rear admiral with an extra number and place him on the retired list. An amendment was adopted giving him the pay of a rear admiral of the first grade.

The top notch pay of a rear admiral is \$6,000 a year and that of the same officer on the retired list three-fourths of his active compensation. Thus Admiral Peary will receive \$4,500 a year for the remainder of his life.



The Gare du Nord, Paris, France.



The submerged Rue de Lyon.

THE GREAT PARIS FLOOD.

# Industrial Chimneys and Water Towers of Concrete Blocks

BY H. PRIME KIEFFER

The employment of concrete blocks for the construction of factory or industrial chimneys and water towers is one of the most natural use of that material in building construction. It is very surprising that the idea of utilizing a certain molded blocks for this purpose should have come from Europe instead of America where blocks have found a wider range of use than in any country in the world. The system is the ideal one for the rapid erection of factory chimneys in the United States there have been in use some twenty different systems in which armored concrete is employed but they all have some primary form of scaffolding in their designs. This is the underlying reason why those chimneys cannot be constructed more economically and rapidly. The method of constructing chimneys of separate molded concrete blocks is the invention of M. Dupuis, an engineer and architect of Liège in Belgium. It is controlled by Leon Monnier of Paris also of this city who furnished the data and photographs for the present article. The system is notable for its simplicity its beauty of form its economy in cost, and its adaptability to rapid construction.

The chimneys are like all others in that they are composed of three parts the foundation the base and the shaft. The shaft is formed of reinforced concrete of a special design. The form of the blocks is shown in the accompanying diagram. The number of blocks in each course all ways remains the same, yet there is a taper in the chimney. They are placed in regular horizontal courses to the required height and upon the top is placed a special capping block of either concrete cast iron or cut stone.

The builders work on a rough platform and from the interior of the structure and each block is received by them ready for its particular position. Two men are usually employed above in laying the blocks, and two below to hold them to the platform. The blocks in each succeeding course are placed in the opposite direction, that is to say, all the even courses will have the same direction and all the odd courses will take the reverse of this. In this manner, the joining of the blocks of one course where they do not meet perfectly will be covered by the blocks in the course above. As shown in the diagram each block has at one of its extremities a "hook" similar to the shape of the letter "U". This "hook" forms a hollow space which extends the full length of the chimney and of course there will be just as many of these hollow spaces as there are sides to the chimneys. Through these vertical hollow spaces are placed vertical iron rods. B, varying in diameter according to the height of the structure. At each course these rods are tied or bound to the courses by U-shaped bars from which F. These in turn, are wired to a small iron rod D which is placed between the courses horizontally and in a groove made for it in the top of the blocks.

The placing of the vertical rods in the openings and not in the substance of the shaft proper forms an important advantage of this system. The reinforcement is thus kept at a low temperature, and is not subject to the injurious effect which would arise from unequal expansion if the steel was in the center of the mass. Ferro-concrete is indestructible by fire as long as the temperature of decomposition of concrete is not reached, but it must be remembered that although the coefficients of expansion of concrete are the same, the coefficients of conductivity are

very different, and fracture is likely to arise if, from this cause, the temperature of the iron exceeds that of the concrete. Consideration of this condition is especially important in the case of a structure which is heated on one side, only, such as a chimney.

A clever idea in connection with the design of the blocks is that there is need for only three, or at the most, four size of blocks for the average chimney of

each succeeding course has a diameter smaller than the one below it, and in this manner, the taper of the chimney is obtained. As the longest blocks are some three feet in length and the widest across the semi-circular opening about six to eight inches, it is possible to make a considerable taper in this manner. For a taper of 1% to 2 per cent, the size of the blocks is changed every forty or fifty feet. The blocks may, of course, be laid with absolutely no taper, and then one size, only, of blocks is used. Some chimneys have been constructed on this plan, but they appear to be not so graceful as those having a slight taper.

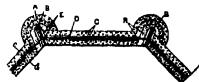
The concrete blocks are usually made at the chimney site, although they can of course be molded at a concrete block factory, and this may be economical in case there are several chimneys under construction in the same district. The proportions for the concrete mixture vary somewhat, but the usual mixture consists of about five parts gravel, three of sand, and two of cement. Dust of stone is used sometimes and has given very good results. From an architectural point of view, the chimneys constructed with this system present a pleasing appearance. Being thinner than brick chimneys, they rise more gracefully from the base, and yet the strength and stability which they actually possess is at once suggested to the eye by the appearance of strength which is presented by the protruding rounded angles.

A number of chimneys and water towers have been built in Europe after this system, and the two photographs presented in connection with this article show a water tower, and a combined water tower and chimney. The water tower which is located in Liège, a suburb of Brussels, Belgium, will be used in connection with the 1910 exposition to be held in that city. The tower and tank have a height of 145 feet and the latter has a capacity of 280,000 gallons. The structure is circular and is built entirely of concrete blocks and without molding of any kind excepting that need in the building of the concrete reinforcing strips surrounding the base of the tank proper. The inside of the tank is built up in practically six stories connected by a winding staircase. These different floors are divided into rooms which will all be occupied by engineers, foremen and other workmen during the exposition. The stairways are placed along the outer walls and the water remains in the center inclosed by a concrete covering of square cross section.

## Oil That Could Well Not Be Lost

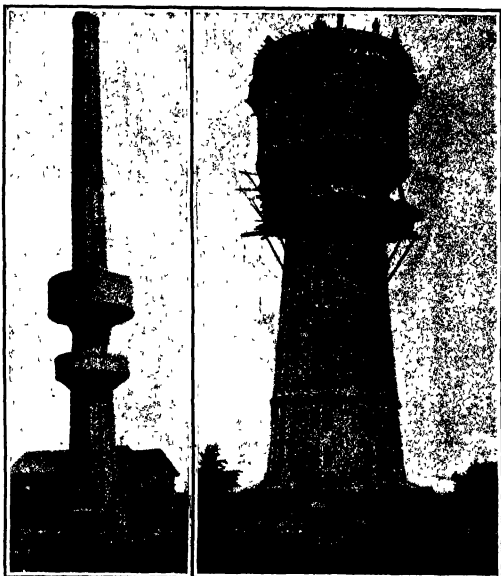
It is often difficult to keep machinery properly oiled in cold weather, as the oil freezes in the joints, in the holes and the cups, and the oil upon the ways of the belts and plunger becomes stiff, causing the machines to work hard. A good oil for winter use is made by mixing graphite with cylinder oil until in a thick or paste consistency, and then adding kerosene until it flows freely. This oil will not become stiff at 14 degrees below zero, and is found to be superior to any machinery outside or in cold shops. — Power.

In the presidential address to the American Street and Interurban Railway Association at Mr. Black, at Denver, said that in round numbers there are 1,250 street and interurban railway companies in America, with a total of 35,000 miles of single-track and 75,000 passenger cars. The passenger carried annually is 10,000,000, and the gross income \$44,000,000.



A. Isolating the hidden reinforcing rods of the blocks.  
B. The concrete of the block.  
C. The reinforcing rod consisting of the blocks in any one course.  
D. A flat U-shaped iron bar which holds the vertical rod at a fixed position in the hollow space.  
E. Water filling.

Cross section of a portion of a concrete water tower. Section at one end of the joining of two of the courses.



Concrete block chimney carrying two courses of reinforced concrete.

Concrete-block water tower for the 1910 International Exposition at Brussels, Belgium.

## INDUSTRIAL CHIMNEYS AND WATER TOWERS OF CONCRETE BLOCKS

150 feet high and with a taper of one to three per cent. This is made possible by the following arrangement. The molds by which the blocks are made consist of but three cast-iron plates, held together by wooden stop blocks, and three ordinary iron clamps. Different sizes of blocks can be made therefrom, by simply changing the relative positions of the plates and the wooden stop blocks. After the blocks are molded, they are placed in the following manner. Take, for instance, the first row, at the base. Here, naturally the blocks are of the largest size, and the arm of the block the longest. The arms of the blocks in this course are placed just to the edge of the blocks and in the next course the arms are placed just a little farther into the blocks, and thus

# The Home Laboratory

## THE CONSTRUCTION OF AN IMPROVED SILICON DETECTOR.

BY GEORGE S. WATSON

The detector described herein is one that can easily take the name "improved," being a radical departure from the commonly-adjusting detectors generally used. If properly constructed and connected, it will easily pick up wireless messages sent from very distant points. The component parts are shown in Fig. 1.

The base of the instrument is fashioned from hard rubber,  $3 \times 2 \times \frac{1}{2}$  inch,  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch holes are bored in it one inch from each corner. A support for the crystal cup is made from annealed brass, 4 inches in length,  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch in width, and  $\frac{1}{16}$  inch in thickness. It is bent to an L shape, as can be seen in Fig. 2.

The crystal cup is turned from brass red  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch in diameter. It is threaded, as seen in Figs. 1 and 2, to fit a thumb nut. The crystal is fastened in the cup by means of lead. This insures a good contact. The ad-

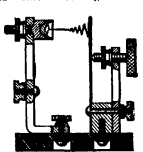
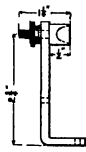


Fig. 1

### SECTIONAL VIEW OF THE ASSEMBLED DETECTOR

Justing mechanism can be made in one steel half strip, the point of which makes contact on the silicon strip, upon the thousandth part of an inch. The phosphor bronze spiral, upon which the spiral contact is fastened is  $\frac{1}{8}$  inch in length,  $\frac{1}{16}$  inch in width, of No. 28 B & S gage sheet. It is bolted to a cube of brass which in turn is fastened by means of a machine screw to the base. This screw serves also as a binding post. The brass post supporting the adjusting screw is of  $\frac{1}{16}$  inch brass of the same stock as the L-shaped piece. It is  $\frac{1}{8}$  inch in length,  $\frac{1}{16}$  inch in width, and  $\frac{1}{16}$  inch in thickness. A  $\frac{1}{16}$  inch hole is bored  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch from



SUPPORTS FOR THE CRYSTAL AND THE ADJUSTING DETECTOR.



Fig. 3

one end to admit the machine screw that binds it to the brass cube. Another hole is bored  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch from the other end and tapped to fit the adjusting screw. The adjusting screw has a large knurled rubber handle for adjusting purposes, also a lock nut to be tightened when the detector is at its most sensitive point. This detector is comparatively easy to construct and is inexpensive. The one undesirable quality in silicon detectors—their ability to get out of adjustment—is almost entirely eliminated in this detector, due to the use of the spiral instead of the solid contact.

### IMPROVING THE EFFICIENCY OF WIMSHURST KEYING MACHINES.

BY GEORGE S. WATSON

The Wimshurst static electric machine, as is well known, consists of two glass circles revolving on a compound axis in opposite directions. As usually made, this machine is inferior to the Tooplair-Holtz type, although somewhat cheaper to make, and superior in simplicity. The latter quality has been without doubt one of the chief reasons why it is in general use where

over the small electric discharge this machine will give as commonly made, will answer the purpose.

In building both kinds of these interesting machines it is the practice to varnish the revolving glass circles with white shellac, dissolved in alcohol. In the higher grade machines the best quality of shellac and grain alcohol are used for this varnish, but for the toy variety wood alcohol and the cheapest grades of shellac are used. Some years ago the writer was building both Wimshurst and Tooplair-Holtz machines, but was unable to obtain a discharge from the Wimshurst type that could compare with the other kind, even when the glass circles were of the same diameter.

The development of the machines in both cases had extended over a series of years, and it was supposed the limit was reached. At this time the Tooplair-Holtz machine was giving with 25 inch circles (using the Leyden jars) equal to the radius of the circles or 12 inches long thick as the thumb and when discharging detaching like the sound of a rifle.

The Wimshurst machines with an equally large circle would not give sparks over 4 inches long, and about as thick as a knitting needle. Finally, in building a lot of machines the writer found some were much better than others. Miraculous efforts were made to ascertain what caused the increase in efficiency, but without discovering anything different in the construction of those that showed the improvement from the others. In the next lot after this, however, all of the machines were capable of giving sparks 8 inches long, although the diameter of the glass circles was but 14 inches. The thickness of the spark had also increased to the size of a pen case and the wonderful increase in efficiency was attributed to some quality inherent in the glass of which the circles were made but inquiries made of the manufacturers of the glass failed to disclose any different methods of making the glass than had been followed for many years.

About this time the writer in varnishing some circles held one of them up to the light and was struck by its light green appearance and although giving it little attention at the time gained the impression that this change in color might have something to do with the increased efficiency just mentioned. For shortly after this a new lot of machines were built and every one of them had reverted to first principles so far as the spark was concerned it being short, weak, and sparkling. In the effort to find out what had caused the reversion the writer called to mind the fact before varnishing the last lot a new brush had been used in a new batch of varnish.

It is customary in making the varnish to dissolve the shellac in the glass jar with a muslin bag large enough to get the brush in conveniently and the brush is left in the jar between the construction of the different lots of machines. It was found that the old brush had been shedding its bristles, and to prevent this it had been bound around with some fine copper wire. The action of the varnish had begun to corrode the copper and the salt had given the varnish the faint green color which some time later was before on the glass circles, although there had been nothing different in the color of the body of varnish in the jar apparent.

The suspicion dawned on the mind of the writer that this had been the cause of the increase of efficiency and the lack of it in the last lot of machines. Another batch of varnish was accordingly made, and in it was put about a quart of a pound of fine brass copper wire. A new brush was procured and placed in the jar and the varnish allowed to stand in a warm dark room about a week, when it had assumed a light green color, and was used to coat the circles of a new machine.

This machine was found on trial to be even more efficient than the best of the others.

In experimenting with the newly discovered varnish it was found that if it was allowed to become dark green the voltage of the machine was interfered with and while the spark would be thicker it would not jump as far. The best results were obtained when it was a very light green. The reason for this the increased efficiency was thought to be due to a decrease of the resistance of the shellac between the sectors on which the equalizing brushes bear.

This varnish was tried on Tooplair-Holtz machines without their showing any marked increase, perhaps due to their being already capable of delivering sparks equal to the radius of the glass circles. The color was a very light green. The reason for this was by amusements and others to add directly to the capability of the Wimshurst machine, and besides the light green color on the glass adds to the beauty of the instrument.

Many builders of Wimshurst machines as well as those experimentally inclined have trouble in making the brass sectors stick to the shellac. As (until now) were through from contact with the equalizing brushes this trouble has been caused by many on the better grades of machines to secure durability. Brass sectors can be made to stick permanently in the following manner:

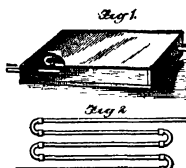
In varnishing the circles about three coats of varnish are applied with a large fat camel's hair brush

Each coat is allowed to become moderately hard before applying the next. After the last coat is applied, and has stood about fifteen minutes mark the locations where the varnish is not so hard (about evenly spaced), and after applying some varnish to the under side of the sector, press it down into the soft varnish until a slight ring swells up around the margin of the sector. After the varnish is hard on a canvas cloth will show the sector dovetailed into the varnish from which it will never separate as it will if cemented in any other way on account of the expansion and contractions of the brass being so much greater than the glass, and causing the sector to become loose.

### SILVERING GLASS AT HOME.

BY J. J. JAMES

A good glass mirror made with an iron handle is a thing to be proud of. Mirrors are now seldom made by the tinfoil and mercury process, because of the dangerous character of the work but pure silver is used instead. The silver process is not in the least dangerous to the workman. The formula here given is one that has been in use in several looking glass and art mirror factories in the city of London. The



APPARATUS REQUIRED FOR SILVERING GLASS.

chemicals used must be of absolute purity (chemically pure) and all operations in preparing the glass must be carried out with care and scrupulous cleanliness. The surface to be silvered must be perfectly freed from the finger or thumb (it will leave an indelible impression).

The first thing to be done is to make a small table out of a piece of slab about  $\frac{1}{4}$  or  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch thick 10 or 12 inches wide and 18 inches long. These measurements are not binding, any piece of slab about the above size will do, a wooden trough must be made with grooves at the top and sides for the glass to rest in. There must be a space of 2 inches between the slab and the wood on bottom as indicated in Fig. 1. In this space a roll of pipe arranged as shown in Fig. 2. The pipe is of  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch diameter and 18 inches long. The screw is passed to raise the temperature of the slab slide to about  $120^{\circ}\text{C}$  or  $2^{\circ}\text{F}$  in fact just hot enough for the hand to bear. The steam can be supplied from an ordinary tea kettle placed near the dissolving table with a rubber tube connecting the coil to the spout of the kettle. Uniform heating of the slab slide is essential. The coil can be easily made of  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch iron gas tubing at several one of  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch cast iron connections, as shown in Fig. 2. The slab slide can be covered with black oil cloth and be perfectly level. The following stock solutions must be made and carefully filtered through absorbent cotton ready for use.

Stock Solution A—Nitric acid of specific gravity 1.5 ounces dilute water 10 ounces at room temperature (75°). This solution must be stirred well and allowed to stand for 24 hours and then add 10 ounces more of distilled water and filter.

Stock Solution B—Hydrochloric acid 4 ounces, distilled water 20 ounces.

Stock Solution C—Distilled water 10 ounces, potassium chloride of 1/2 grains.

Clean the glass plate in plates with very fine rouge, and water taking care that no trace of grease whatsoever comes into contact with the glass or the silver or chrome leather used for polishing. When cleaned the plate must be washed all over with the tin solution. Pour this solution on and wash the plate well with distilled water. Then wash the plate with the tin solution with clean wood wedges at each corner. Let the glass sit on the wedges so as to allow a slight adjustment if required for leveling. The mixtures for silvering are then applied and stirred up on the water. It will flow evenly all over until it stands about one-tenth of an inch deep all over the plate. Any tendency to run to one end must be corrected by the wedges. The plate must be stirred and stirred up on the silvering mixture. The plate must be left to itself for about two hours the heat being kept up during this time and when it is found that the whole of the silver has been deposited, the liquid must be poured off and stirred and allowed to run into a stone jar or sifting

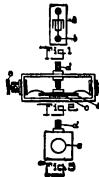
for the water silver it contains. If it is desired to increase the thickness of the deposit, the operation must be repeated as soon as the silvering is complete, wash the plate well in a soft stream of running water, sand it thoroughly to drain and dry. When dry the following treatment must be used as a coating to protect the deposited silver. Rub the plate with a cloth, 1/2 pound, wood alcohol, 6 points. As soon as this coating has dried it must be again washed with the following paste. Rub with 3/4 pound, white lead, 1/2 pound, mixed with enough boiled oil and a small quantity of turpentine to make a good covering with a single coating. A small quantity of gold size must also be added to insure a strong and tough adhering quality. The mirror is now ready for framing if such work has to be done. It will be advisable to cover the plate all over with a piece of felt, and keep it in the wet during the operation for two reasons. First no pieces of woollen fiber can settle upon the plate, and secondly, the heat from the plate slab is communicated to the glass better than from a dry surface.

For a regular workshop a very good size is 4 by 7 feet. In a smaller set around the slab, so that the spent silver that liquid can run from the tilted plate, around the table, and be collected, running through a hole at one corner. In this case the liquid will be sure to come in contact with the felt. This will prove of no consequence, because in time it will become saturated with silver, which will neutralize twice its first cost when sent to the silver refiner, and not only pay for a new felt covering, but increase the size of the pocket book at the same time. The quantity of silver required to coat a square foot of glass with a moderate coating of silver is 18 grains. An estimate as to cost can be made from this amount.

#### SELENIUM CELL WITH CONTACT BY PRESSURE

BY W. A. GARDNER

The usual method of making a selenium cell consists in providing the electrodes against a piece of crystallized selenium, which decreases its resistance to an electric current, when submitted to the action of light. The quality of selenium can be perfectly controlled, as it needs not come in contact with metal when fused in which state it dissolves nearly all metals (i. e., the electrodes). This is of importance, because small quantities of other elements sometimes have considerable influence on its sensitiveness. More over a piece of selenium, if for some reason has lost its efficiency, can be really replaced by another piece, at low cost. The most important point, however, is that the contraction or decrease in volume (1 to 3 per cent), which is inseparable from the process of crystallization, has no influence whatever upon the contact with the electrodes, as the piece of selenium is



#### SELENIUM CELL WITH CONTACT BY PRESSURE

given its definite form after the contraction has taken place. Strong currents of short duration do not lead to the destruction of the cell, as there is full scope for expansion.

Despite these important facts, this method has not been hitherto used because very thin plates of selenium are necessary as the action of light is limited to an extremely thin layer of the exposed surface (calculated by Marx to be about 1/600,000 inch thick). Moreover, selenium is rather fragile and being of high resistance heavy pressure must be used in order to realize good contact.

The author discovered that selenium, when molten between a cold and a very hot glass plate, strongly adheres to the latter, after the crystallization. It is thus possible to cover a thin (1/600 inch) glass plate with an exceedingly thin coating of selenium (1/1,000 to 1/500,000 inch) which has a highly polished surface that gives very good contact with the electrodes. These crystals of selenium are shown in the diagram (Fig. 1). They are from 250 to 3,200 electrodes on every inch.

Cells constructed after this method are very reliable and show remarkably constant resistance of surface. The working surface—The following is a description of a cell actually made.

Working surface—1/4 by 1/4 inch.  
Resistance in the dark = 20,000 ohms.

Resistance in ordinary daylight = 10,000 ohms.

Resistance in street light = 3,000 ohms.

Maximum intensity of current = 0.0115 amperes.

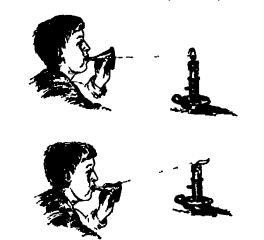
Fig. 2 gives a diagram of the cell.

Fig. 3 is an end view of same.

Glass plates with a thin coating of metal (silver) have before now been used as electrodes for ultraviolet sensitive to light. This combination or at least the results attained are new.

#### SOME SCIENTIFIC AMUSEMENTS

**The Candle and the Funnel**—Ask a person to extinguish a lighted candle, two feet distant from his head, by blowing through a common funnel with the lip applied to the stem. Almost invariably, he will fail to accomplish the feat, although he could easily have blown out the candle without using the funnel. Now put your own mouth in the stem of the funnel and blow out the candle. If you have any skill in performing tricks you can repeat this one many times without betraying its secret to the average spectator. The secret is this: When you blow into the small end of a funnel, your breath follows the inner surface of the cone, and not only shuts the axis, but produces eddies of such a character that there is actually a slight back draft or inward current at the center of the wide mouth of the funnel. You, therefore, hold the



#### LIGHT AND WINDS WAY OF BLOWING OUT A CANDLE

funnel so that some part of its conical surface would, if extended, strike the candle flame. An inexperienced person naturally directs the axis of the funnel toward the candle and consequently fails to extinguish the flame. If he stands quite near the candle and blows gently the flame will even be drawn toward the funnel by the inward current. The whirling motion of the air may be made visible by using a glass funnel and filling it with tobacco smoke.

**Paradoxes of Evaporation**—Everybody knows that water boils at the temperature of 212 deg. Fahr. But if an unopened bottle partly filled with water is set in a vacuum containing water in which a good deal of salt has been dissolved, and the pan is heated over a spirit lamp or otherwise, the water in the bottle will begin to boil while the water outside still remains perfectly quiet. Yet the water outside must be at least as hot as the water inside (212 deg. Fahr.), for the latter is heated by the former. Hence we see that water which contains salt in solution does not boil at 212 deg. Fahr. The same effect is produced by dissolving any other solid substance in the water.

Now, if the bottle is taken from the hot brine and corked, the water in the bottle stops boiling, but it will boil again when it is taken out of the brine. If cold water is poured on the upper part of the bottle. The explanation is that the boiling point of water is affected by pressure. It is about 212 deg. Fahr. under the ordinary pressure of the atmosphere (exactly 212 deg. when the barometer stands at 30 inches) but if the pressure is reduced, water boils at a lower temperature. When the water bottle was corked and taken from the fire, its upper part was filled with steam at atmospheric pressure, which had expelled the air originally present. As the bottle cooled, this steam partly condensed and its pressure was diminished, but not sufficiently to permit the water to boil, because the water cooled also and its gradually diminishing temperature was always a little below the boiling point corresponding to the actual pressure. But the water in the bottle is added, and with it the volume of steam and a sudden lowering of the pressure without having much cooling effect on the water, which consequently began to boil.

**Distillation**—The same apparatus may be employed to illustrate the process of distillation. The brine in the pan is replaced by fresh water, a hole is bored in the cork and a glass tube is fitted to the hole. To the water in the bottle is added enough of the volume of alcohol, or less. The bottle and pan are placed over the lamp, as before, and heated gently. Before the water in the pan has reached the boiling point the vapor of the more volatile alcohol (mixed with a li-

quid water vapor) issues from the end of the glass tube, where its presence can be detected by its odor or by the application of a lighted match, which will result in the production of a tall blue flame. The jet should not be lighted until the mixture has been heated long enough to expel the air from the bottle, as the ignition of a mixture of air and alcohol would produce a violent explosion. For this reason the cork, though it should be airtight, should not be inserted too tightly. With this precaution an explosion will drive out the cork, instead of shattering the bottle. This experiment, and the others performed with this apparatus, should not be attempted by children or careless persons.

**Hero's Fountain**—If the jet of flame issuing from the tube is extinguished and the tube pushed down until it dips into the water, a fine liquid stream will

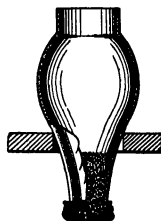


#### MODIFIED FORM OF HERO'S FOUNTAIN

be thrown high in the air by the pressure of the mixed vapors of alcohol and water in the upper part of the bottle.—Knoox.

#### A SIMPLE EFFECTIVE FILTER

The filter here described was first made by the writer in 1876, and used originally for filtering gelatine emulsions. As a water filter it is both simple and effective. Procure an ordinary kerosene lamp chimney. Fit over the end of it two or three thicknesses of washed cotton cloth. Press a tuft of sheepsfoot cotton into the small part of the neck for about three inches in depth, insert



#### HOME-MADE FILTER

the chimney, and place it in a hole cut in a wooden shab as a support. Pour the water in until the filter is filled, when it will be observed that any organic matter, chips of iron rust, etc., will be retained by the cotton. The fine organic matter may penetrate the cotton for about one inch, but no farther. The resultant filtered water will be bright, clean, and pure.

A paper dealing with "Research on Metallic Filament Lamps," by Mr. F. H. Roake, Lancaster, was recently presented at a meeting of the Birmingham Institution of Electrical Engineers. The research was undertaken in order to investigate the conditions of working as regards voltage, and efficiency and percentage drop in candle-power, giving the most economical life in the case of metallic filament glow lamps, and to determine as far as possible the cost of illumination with this source of light. The author stated that the useful life of a lamp, and the drop in candle-power which it was advisable to allow for a given voltage, depended on the cost of current and the price of the lamp. The cheaper the current, the longer the life, and the greater the admissible drop. Taking the current at 54. per unit as an average price, and the lamp run at rated voltage, then it paid in the case of the incandescent class of lamp to throw it away as soon as the candle-power had fallen to 1/3 per cent below its original value. This result appeared startling at first, considering the large initial cost of the lamp. However, by the time that point was reached the lamp had been burning for 1,500 hours at the best possible efficiency, so that the cost of the lamp per candle-power had become small.













Concluded on page 176.

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(Continued from page 174.)  
 melting at a lower temperature than the melting point of the most fusible component. By compressing zinc and copper powders, slightly darker color which was distinguished from brass only by its bright orange color.

In spite of these partial results the problem had not so far been definitely solved. It remained in fact to be seen whether, by augmenting the speed of fusion of the mixed metal powders, pressure really favored the formation of those compounds which are characteristic of alloys obtained by melting. This question is answered by Prof G. Tamman on the basis of recent experiments by G. Wiatte.

When substituting a mixture of filings of two metals forming neither a chemical compound nor mixed crystals (e.g., zinc and cadmium or copper and silver) to a pressure of 4,000 atmospheres, and heating the conglomerate thus obtained the rising curve of temperature was seen at a given point to slacken down after reaching a temperature 10° C. higher than that at which the whole is found to melt. As far as the thermal properties and its structure are considered this conglomerate is practically identical with alloys obtained by melting.

As far as the properties under high pressure the powder of two metals forming a definite compound and capable of mixing in all proportions in a liquid state, and by heating the conglomerate thus obtained, two stopping points are found in the curve of temperature. The first of these points corresponds with the melting of a compound formed at the surface while the other corresponds with the formation of the alloy. This is the case for instance, with mixtures of magnesium with zinc, lead or tin in benzene. The conglomerate composed of magnesium and antimony has only a single stopping point situated at 300° C. below the melting point of antimony. This corresponds with the formation of the compound MgSb.

The temperature then rises very rapidly in order to eventually fall down to the melting point of the alloy. The third case investigated by Masing relates to the conglomerate of two metals forming an uninterrupted series of mixed crystals, such as magnesium and cadmium on the one hand and lead and thallium on the other. When heating such conglomerates only a single stopping point is observed corresponding to the melting point of the most fusible component. The form then assumed by the curve depends on the diffusion of the two components into one another.

The conglomerates obtained merely by compression do not contain any trace of mixed crystals. Microscopical examination thus only shows the existence of grains of copper and tin in recently prepared conglomerates. If, however, these mixtures be heated to 200° C. (i.e., below the melting point of the tin) there are found compounds of the grains of copper and tin, the two metals corresponding to the formula Cu<sub>2</sub>Sn and Cu<sub>3</sub>Sn respectively. If these conglomerates be heated during 20 hours to 400° C. a layer of mixed crystals corresponding to the formula Cu<sub>2</sub>Sn is found. This proves that compounds of these metals are permeable to their constituents.

The following conclusions are derived from these experiments:

The compression of two metals at ordinary temperatures will yield conglomerates containing only the pure metal. It is neither compounds nor mixed crystals as characteristic of alloys obtained by melting. Mere compression thus does not cause diffusion sufficiently to bring about combination or the formation of mixed crystals. If, however, heated metals (i.e., with increased speed of diffusion) are submitted to pressure there is obtained not only a more coherent mass, but a portion of the metals is found to form compounds and mixed crystals, so as to produce a conglomerate which is very much like a real alloy.

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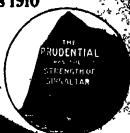
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## ENGINEERING.

In a paper recently read by Mr. Henry Hess before the American Society of Mechanical Engineers on the power lost in belting it was shown that 80 per cent of the power transmission loss was due to journal friction. This may be materially reduced by substitution of ball for plain bearings, provided care be taken to suit the size of the balls to the load.

The Committee of the American Railway Maintenance-of-Way Association in a recent bulletin takes up the subject of rail specifications. For Bessemer rail of 85 to 100 lb. the recommended composition is: Carbon, 0.45 to 0.65, manganese 0.08 to 0.15, phosphorus not to exceed 0.10, and sulphur not to exceed 0.075. The recommendations for open-hearth steel for the same weight of rail are: Carbon, 0.38 to 0.55, manganese, 0.07 to 0.10, phosphorus not to exceed 0.04, and sulphur not to exceed 0.06.

The two latest German dreadnoughts are to be equipped with turbines, and special interest attaches to the fact that two rival types of turbine, the Parsons and the Curtis, will be tried out against each other. The "Helmuth" will be propelled by triple screws operated by Curtis turbines, and the sister ship will be equipped with Parsons turbines of equal contract power.

A method of simultaneously excavating and lifting vertical shafts is contemplated in one of the contracts for the Catskill water supply. In the shaft will be suspended a lifting platform, from which the concrete forms will be erected and concrete laid. The excavating will be carried on below, the material being hoisted through a hole in the center of the platform.

We recently noted in these columns the rapid increase in the weight of locomotives. A similar growth is taking place in the cars, the Pennsylvania Railroad Co. having recently placed tenders for 10,000 coal cars of 70 tons capacity and an overload capacity of 10 per cent. As the steel in the cars will weigh 20 tons exclusive of the wheels, the maximum weight of car and load may reach 160 tons.

Approves of marine turbines we note that Messrs. Parsons & Co., recognizing the advantages of twin-screw propulsion, as proved in the Curtis equipment of the scout "Haines," have developed a modified Curtis partial admission turbine which they are to install in one of the new 5,200-ton 25-knot British scout. A sister ship will be Curtis turbines. The Parsons turbines will weigh 100 tons, guarantee full power on 150 pounds of dry steam per horsepower per hour. The Curtis turbine will weigh 250 tons and guarantee 125 pounds of superheated steam.

There are persistent reports that the Hamburg American Line is about to build large steamers which will rival the White Star liners Olympic and Titanic, which are to be in service during 1911. The reported dimensions are: Length, 476 feet, beam, 92 feet, and depth, 66 feet. Reciprocal motion of 40,000-horsepower will drive the ships at a speed of 31 knots.

A recent bulletin of the United States Geological Survey gives some statistics of producing power plants in the United States which are very favorable. There are over 100 plants in operation, aggregating 115,000 horsepower. The government testing plants at St. Louis and Norfolk show a fuel consumption of as low, under favorable conditions, as 0.85 pound per electrical-horsepower. Comparative tests of 75 grades of bituminous coal under steam boilers and in producers show a ratio of 1.5 to 1 in favor of the latter.

One of the most important branches of the general scheme for the development of Japan is the extension of her railroad development along predetermined lines which have been laid out with an eye to the development of the country and covered a rail. A notable event in this development was the recent completion of the railway between Hitozumi and Kagoshima, which connected up the last link in the trunk line running throughout the island of Kyushu. The total length of the line is 1,750 miles, and the distance from north to south of the island can now be covered in five days and nights. At the close of the last year 1907-8 there were 453 miles of state railways were opened to traffic and 485 miles of railway controlled by private interests.

A promising installation of a windmill-electric plant has recently been completed at the New England, by J. P. Childs & Co., of London. It consists of a 24-foot wind turbine carried upon a 75-foot tower. The generator is located at the foot of the tower, the battery and regulating apparatus being placed on the house. Overhead copper cables carry the current to the battery some 455 yards distant. The generator which runs at 400 to 600 revolutions per minute is driven by a 5-horsepower windmill, and is connected to the wind turbine. It has a maximum output of 4 kilowatts with a normal pressure of 70 volts. The plant runs about 100 lights in the house, and serves also to drive a clock tower, a streetcar saw, and a root-pulping machine.

## ELECTRICAL.

A company has been formed in London to introduce and encourage the use of electricity in the poorer districts of the city. The company agrees to wire and supply any apartment of three rooms and over with incandescent lamps, charging five cents a week per lamp from April to September and seven cents a week for the rest of the year. The lamps however must be renewed by the consumer.

A new mounting for metallic filament in lamps has been devised in Germany. The mounting provides for the shrinkage of the filament which is not always uniform and for this reason some filaments supported at its lower end on a small spring which is covered with a paste of finely powdered tungsten so as to prevent it from being consumed by the heat of the incandescent filament.

The use of the telephone for train dispatching is slowly spreading. The Gulf, Texas & Western Railroad is equipping its line with a telephone system for train dispatching between Jacksonville and Jacksonville. The road connects the Chicago, Rock Island & Gulf and the Wichita Valley railroads. When the telephone system on the Spokane division of the Great Northern Railway is completed there will be 2,100 miles of this railroad operated by means of the telephone.

A hydro-electric plant in the Hakone Mountains about 38 miles from Yokohama, Japan has recently been completed and is particularly interesting for the fact that much of the apparatus used is of Japanese make. The Shibaura Electric Manufacturing Company of Tokyo has built the 400-kilowatt air-cooled, oil-insulated transformers to be used at the substation in Yokohama. A large number of the high-tension insulators used on the line are of the Shibaura type and one-third of the line is supported on towers which is a new departure for Japan. At the power station the water is carried over a distance of 15,000 feet in two parallel pipe lines that lead to the turbine generators. The upper half of the pipe line runs on a series of riveted piles made by the Shibaura Company. The plant comprises two 2,000-kilowatt alternators and the current which is generated at 3,450 volts, is stepped up to 44,000 volts for the line.

A large number of the Electrical World appears an interesting article on the wireless telephone and the author arrives at the following conclusions: "It is, then, quite evident that future systems of wireless telephony must utilize more efficient microphone transmitters and find types far in advance of those used today. In addition to this, some more powerful and more reliable oscillator must be substituted for the one at present in general use. The use of its operation and its cost be sufficiently reduced this substitute may be the high-frequency alternator. With the few weak points of the present system removed, the mechanical parts of the apparatus retained, the wireless telephone will come into all the uses to which it is adapted but the elimination of the defects will involve a departure from present methods. Until those are discarded, attempts at commercial wireless telephony will be futile."

The following useful electrical shop kink was published in a recent number of the Electric Railway Journal describing a method of soldering broken or burned-out wires without removing them from the armature. "The damaged wire is raised a little way out of the slot. The insulation is then scraped off for a few inches and the ends of the broken wire are then twisted together with a pair of pliers and cut to fit the gap. One end of the inserted wire is then butt-jointed with the armature wire and the ends heated by a gas torch until they are red hot. Upon this a little flux is applied as a flux, and the wire is then solder in inserted between the ends. When both splices are completed in this fashion the bare wire will wound with silk, as the latter takes up less space than the wire which has been covered with insulation. The coil is ready to be returned to the slot. During the operation of heating with the torch the adjacent wires are protected by fiber barriers."

It is reported that at the time of the rescue of the "Titanic" the steamship "Essex" was in the vicinity which had been summoned by wireless telegraphy, the wireless apparatus had almost been put out of commission by the water that partially submerged the ship. By using the dynamo and the battery it was possible to keep the machine running until help arrived. This is not the only case of a rescue due to the help summoned by wireless telegraphy, and on a number of occasions the apparatus has put the communication by the encroachments of the water. It has been suggested that storage batteries should be used to supply the current, because they could be placed where the apparatus would be no danger of being submerged. But as storage batteries would be impractical owing to the motion of a vessel in a storm, some arrangement should be provided for placing the dynamo and a gasoline engine for driving it well above the danger line.

## SCIENCE.

Recent experiments have proved conclusively that coal dust which has been around to a state so fine that it will pass a 200-mesh sieve, will explode from contact with either a naked flame or with the arc of an electric current.

The building of an observatory on the rim of the great crater of Halemau has been advocated for several years. The prospects are now brighter than they ever were, and it is probable that the observatory will be built as part of the College of Hawaii.

A recipe for a non-shrinking alloy to be used in duplicating patterns, is given as follows by The Metal Industry. Tin, 50 pounds, zinc, 50 pounds. This gives a tough hard metal that runs in a good grade of steel is used. The addition of 2 pounds of bluish will render it even more fluid and enable it to be poured at a lower temperature. By using heavy grease and pouring cold the shrinkage which is slight, may be largely overcome.

Prof. E. B. Barnard recently obtained a photograph of Halley's comet showing a tail on degree long. The comet is beginning to wake up. Mr. Barnard's mail from Honolulu on March 10 observe the transit of Halley's comet on the sun's disk. He is sent out by the comet committee of the Astronomical and Astrophysical Society of America. He takes with him a good flash portrait lens by Brainerd and a 6-inch equatorial mounting lent by the Lick Observatory. It is perhaps the best possible man for the work, and it will be thoroughly equipped for the result.

During the night between October 7th and 8th, 1909, a meteoric storm fell to earth on the farm of Mr. W. P. Nickerson, of Norwood Mass. The meteorite is a hand-shaped mass of very hard gray stone material, much corrugated on the surface, about two and one-half feet long in the greatest dimension, one foot to nearly one and one-half feet broad and varying from one foot to one-half foot in the third dimension. Its volume was estimated at about 75 cubic feet. Its weight as perhaps 275 pounds, and its density as not much over 2.5.

Besides Halley's Comet two other comets may be expected in 1910. The first of these is Tempel's, discovered July 14, 1871, by Tempel, which will be in the year. It was observed in 1878, 1894 and 1904. It last passed perihelion in November. It ought therefore, in its expected this spring.

The second comet is that of Arret, discovered in 1861 and the return of which is expected in the summer of this year. It was observed in 1867, 1870, 1877, 1890 and 1907. It was unfortunately placed in 1891 and therefore has not been seen since.

The chief purpose of the sound-proof room at the University of Upsala is the insuring of perfect freedom from sounds from outside. By building it on platforms of thick lead and cement and by constructing the walls with many thousands of lead bricks, and other bad conductors of sound vibrations, the principal object was attained. The room is so quiet that the beating of one's heart or the creaking of one's muscles is at once heard on taking up a position within its closed doors and windows and the only defect of it as a laboratory for acoustic experiments is that ventilation is absent, and no one can remain in it for more than an hour at a time.

Prof. Lipmann announced before the Academy of Sciences that Madame Curie has obtained a tenth of a gramme of polonium with which she has been experimenting. Polonium is a radioactive element discovered by Madame Curie and her husband, and is named in honor of Marie Curie. It is a very rare element, and is said to be the most powerful of all known radioactive elements. It is a very rare element, and is said to be the most powerful of all known radioactive elements. It is a very rare element, and is said to be the most powerful of all known radioactive elements.

It is reported that the motion of the bridge of the violin has been made by J. W. Gifford and Prof. M. De Haan of Amsterdam. They conclude from their experiments that the bridge of a violin performs a parallel as well as a transverse motion. The motion of the bridge of the violin is not only a transverse motion, but it is also a longitudinal motion. The motion of the bridge of the violin is not only a transverse motion, but it is also a longitudinal motion. The motion of the bridge of the violin is not only a transverse motion, but it is also a longitudinal motion.

## A NEW TYPE OF SELF-DISCHARGING COALING VESSEL

BY F. C. COLEMAN

The new system of belt-conveyor discharge has been installed by William Daxford & Sons, Ltd., in a new vessel—the steamship "Pallion"—which they have recently built at the Pallion shipyard, Sunderland, England, to the order of the Dumbell Shipping Company, Ltd. of Newcastle-on-Tyne. This vessel has a length between perpendiculars of 270 feet, and a carrying capacity of 3,100 tons on a 17 fms 10 inches draft. The machinery, comprising triple-expansion engines and multibelted boilers is placed aft. The cabin accommodation is fitted in the hold and the crew space in the fore-cabin, while the navigation accommodation is about midships.

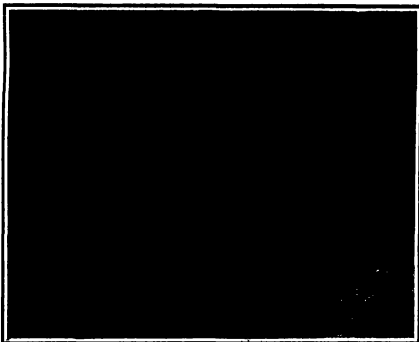
The inner bottom is raised and sloped upward in the wings and built into the sides of the vessel forming a suitable incline for gravitating the cargo to the conveyors, and also giving the vessel the advantage of being about half loaded when in ballast and bunkers. In the center line is constructed a ship-top fore peak throughout the hold and between this tunnel and the tunnel extending from the engine space to the raised portions of the double bottom are placed the conveyor belts of the Hobbs pattern one on either side of the vessel. The sides of the tunnel below the level of the hatchways over the belts are open for free access to the belts and carriers at all times. Over these conveyor belts are placed strong iron guide plates extending the full length of the hold and partially covering the belts leaving a 24 inch hatch over a 35-inch belt. This space is covered in the holds by cross-hatch covers, 9 inches in length and 5 inches in thick-ness, which support the cargo and leave the conveyors to work with out carrying the load. At the after end of the hold a portion of the hatch, over which the hatch cover is omitted is covered by a horizontal iron slide door operated by a raiser in the tunnel. On the fore-end of the bulkhead is constructed an access chamber in free communication with the tunnel which is of such a form as partially to protect the slide door from the cargo when loading, and in the floor of this protection of the chamber is fitted a flap hatch to give access to the hold from the tunnel. At the after end of the cargo space the conveyors rise from the horizontal and pass upward in iron chambers through the machinery space, and thence into the conveyor-driving engine room and discharge the load into guide shoots in the stern of the vessel. These carry the load on to return belts, which are extended forward both sides on the deck. In a simple form these conveyors would terminate at the fore end of the machinery space, or poop front and the load would be delivered into side shoots which telescope and are adjustable for loading barges on either side of the vessel, the shoots being suspended from derricks or other suitable means. In cases where the discharge is required at a higher level than is attained at the poop front and a large range of elevation is necessary, as for instance, for delivery on high quays into trucks and into

applied to the steamship "Pallion," as, in order to obviate the use of delivery shoots, which results in considerable damage, the terminal conveyors are carried in swivel booms, which are raised or lowered and swung overboard to the points of delivery, thus permitting of the cargo being conveyed direct to the truck or barge without shoots. These booms may also be swung across to the reverse side of the vessel, so that both booms can deliver simultaneously into trucks or warehouse. Another important feature of this dis-

The unloading of a cargo of coal is carried on as follows. Presumably the holds are full and the cargo lying on the conveyor is ready to be discharged. The chamber on the bulkhead over the slide door, at which point the space is naturally only partially filled, the slide door in the covers over the conveyors is drawn back by the operator in the tunnel, and the loose coal over it immediately travels on to the conveyors, which may or may not have been started. If running, then the flow continues; if standing, no difficulty arises because the conveyor is only filled at that point, and the aperture becomes blocked and only clears and flows when the belt is started. Then, if no "bridging" occurs, the after part of the hold is rapidly emptied on to the conveyor which is carrying it on deck and into the receiving trucks or barges. If, however, any "bridging" is threatened, the operator in the tunnel ascends to the chamber, and has free access over the aperture to correct any block. If "bridging" occurs higher in the hold, then he breaks it by means of a pinch bar through perforations in the chamber sides. When the after end of the cargo has run to its natural angle of repose, the operator now in the hold merely removes the first cover and places it aft of the aperture, allowing another portion of cargo to run, he being in a free position to maintain the run and correct any tendency to bridging and to abnormal run. If such do occur and again corrects this and, having run so much more, he removes the next segment of cover, and so on, gradually transferring the aperture from the after end to the fore end of the hold. The shoot in the central tunnel being sloped, the cargo gravitates to the aperture, and the final are manipulated by the operator, one man being stationed on the guide plate side, and the other on the bulkhead side of the hold. An important feature is the inclined shoot, over which all the cargo passes on to the belt. This shoot is carried on travelers on the guide plate side, and is moved by the operator in the hold forward from stop to stop to correspond with the movement of the aperture thus allowing two men to manipulate a whole cargo at the rate of 600 tons per hour. It is estimated that in regular working the steamship "Pallion" will be unloaded in six hours, or allowing for stoppages in moving barges, etc., seven to eight hours, and this too with but one stoker, one engineer, two laborers in the hold, and two adjusting the shoots or booms into the coal. The total cost of discharging the cargo of the "Pallion" will not exceed \$80, including the upkeep of the gear, and it is estimated that the cost of discharging a similar cargo at, for instance, the port of Hamburg, is about \$540, and that in the work no fewer than 110 men are employed for about eleven hours under favorable conditions.

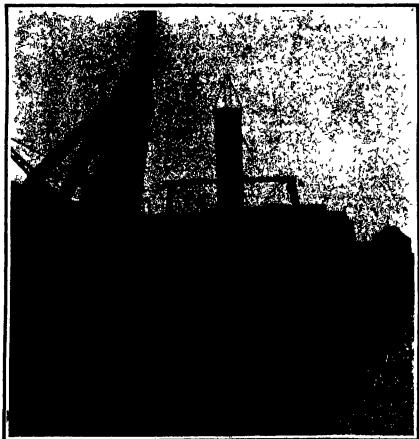
A steamer such as the "Pallion" is even if it is independent of shore labor, and so may avoid the frequent delays arising from labor troubles. The number of men required is so small, and the time occupied so short, that it would be a simple matter to agree with the crew of the vessel that they receive a fixed extra wage, and the discharge of the cargo becomes part of their ordinary duty. A liberal estimate of the cost of discharge, under such conditions, would not reach the sum of two cents per ton, and at this cost the cargo is also weighed.

Root Point.—Mts of powdered ash sink, 30 of powdered iron sink, 40 of powdered American rock, with half the quantity of pure coal tar and both yield an easily breakable mass is obtained.



View of the hold.

The coal falls by gravity onto a conveyor beneath the floor by which it is carried along to the elevator belts of the discharge apertures.



The coal is taken from the bottom of the hold and discharged at an elevation of 40 feet above the water by conveying and discharging into opened on the ship. Rate of unloading 300 tons per hour, not two men a ton.

## A NEW TYPE OF SELF-DISCHARGING COALING VESSEL.

charging arrangement lies in the method of delivering the cargo onto the belts from the hold, and enabling the operator to have full control and free access at all times to the conveyors and to the face of the cargo. He may thus superintend and direct the continuous flow, and be in a position promptly to correct any tendency of the cargo to bridge or to block the aperture leading to the belt, which, being the smallest space the load has to pass through, insures a continuous and uninterrupted delivery.

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## NOVEL ELECTRICAL APPLIANCES

BY PERCY COLLINS

The largely increased use of electricity for illuminating distilleries, wine-cellar, has rendered obsolete many appliances which were formerly in use—especially those which consume coal-gas when in operation. Hence arose a demand for up-to-date inventions designed to be conveniently employed by program. Few recent patents illustrate more strikingly the manner in which the ingenuity of mankind keeps pace with the exigencies of modern trade than those which are illustrated in the accompanying photographs. The patentee and manufacturer of these original electrical appliances is Mr. Frederic Hughes, of London, England, and it is to this gentleman that the present writer is indebted for permission to describe and illustrate the apparatus in question. In the case of the electric search-light or cellar-torch, Mr. Hughes claims that the appliance stands alone, being the only perfect, clean, odorless and reliable invention for thoroughly examining brewers' casks, vats, refrigerators, spirit or oil jars, etc.

The main details of the cellar-torch may be appreciated by reference to the accompanying photographs. The reader will see that it consists essentially of a powerful electric glow lamp of peculiar design, supported at the end of a suitably curved rod. The circumference of this lamp is so small that the appliance can be used effectively through any orifice not less than half an inch in diameter.

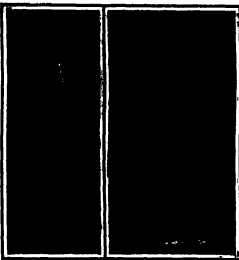
The advantage of this new cellar-torch will be most readily perceived if we compare it with the other appliances which it has superseded. The contact of a gas jet, or a taper flame, with a cold surface (such as the inner wall of a cask or jar) immediately produces a deposit of soot, which may be too slight to attract the notice of the searcher, but will nevertheless discolor and injure to a greater or less extent the fluid with which the vessel is ultimately filled. Similarly, when gas is used to "nose" casks, the products of combustion combined with the CO<sub>2</sub> already in the cask and the pungent odor involved conceal the mustiness and thus deceive the examiner, who accordingly is liable to select a vessel which, as a fact, is far from being so. With the patent searchlight or cellar-torch the examination may be prolonged indefinitely without in the least affecting the actual odor of the vessel in question.

As the heat generated by the lamp of this cellar-torch is very slight, the appliance may be employed for the examination of vessels containing all kinds of inflammable fluids or gases without any danger of explosion. Each torch may be fitted at will with an oblong or circular mirror, which is screwed to the extremity of the appliance beyond the lamp. Upon being passed into the jar or cask, a slight pressure against the side or bottom of the vessel causes the mirror to assume a horizontal position, and by this means a view of the under surface of the vessel is readily obtained. The advantage of this device will be at once apparent to the practical reader, who will readily perceive that by no other means can the whole interior wall of a closed vessel be so thoroughly explored. Indeed, for the thorough examination of the interiors of bung slaves, bushes, boiler tubes, etc., there is no more perfect appliance obtainable than Hughes's cellar-torch fitted with a reflector of suitable shape.

In conjunction with his patent electric torch, Mr. Hughes has recently introduced another novelty in the thermo-cure or wax-melter. This is an ingenious appliance by means of which a perfectly controlled supply of melted sealing or bottling-wax may be obtained. Like all the most important patents, the apparatus is simple in design and effective in use. When connected by means of the flexible wire with the source of electrical current it is held in the left hand—the right hand being perfectly free for use. A stick of wax is fitted into the holder and held in place by means of a screw clip. The left thumb (overcoming a spring) presses the wax downward against the heating receptacle, and by slightly inclining this the melted wax flows through a lip on to the letter, bottle, or other object which is to be sealed. Of course, as the wax melts, the stick shortens, and to complete the melting of the entire stick a slight movement of the hand downward on the handle enables the thumb further to press the wax until the whole stick is consumed—the wax holder traveling in a grooved socket.

Whenever it becomes desirable to check the flow of melted wax, the pressure of the thumb is relaxed, when the spring causes the wax to rise just sufficiently to free the heating lip. A few of the advantages of the thermo-cure may be summarized. In the first place, the

appliance may be used in the most confined space, and in any circumstance, with absolute safety from the fire risk which is so constant a danger wherever naked gas jets and flexible rubber tubes are employed. Again, the greatest possible economy in the use of wax is obtainable, there being no possibility of waste through carelessness, for the reason that melting is automatically stopped the instant that



Wax melter in use, sealing bottle cork.

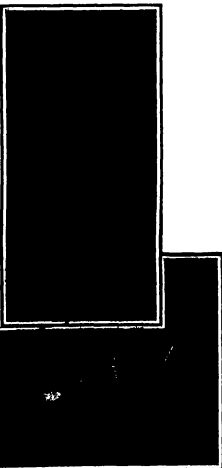
The electric wax melter.

the appliance leaves the hand. No discoloration or smoking of the wax is possible, and the most delicately tinted sealing-wax will remain perfectly true to the original shade. Finally, the sealing can proceed continuously, and in any position, the appliance needing no preliminary preparation, while all spilling or dropping of the wax is entirely avoided. The thermo-cure may therefore be used for sealing letters, postal packets, etc., while articles of value may be safely left in close proximity without the slightest risk of their catching fire.

## The New Agricultural Fertilizer.

The manufacture of fertilizers is one of the most important of chemical industries, but the manufacture, together with the exploitation of the nitrate

## The flexible electric cellar-torch.



Cellar-torch heads, showing lamp and mirror (detached).

NOVEL ELECTRICAL APPLIANCES.

beds of Chile and the peatish deposits of Blumfont, is now in a critical state of development, owing to the increasing production of nitrogenous fertilizers by the fixation of atmospheric nitrogen, and also to the results of recent experiments on the fertilizing effect of extremely small quantities of locally obtained nitrates. The properties of both classes of these new fertilizers are briefly described by René Vauille in Revue de Chimie pure et appliquée.

## NITROGENOUS FERTILIZERS OBTAINED FROM THE ATMOSPHERE.

Nitrates Neutral nitrate of lime, containing 13 per cent of nitrogen, has been manufactured at Nodden, Norway since 1905. It is an excellent fertilizer and equal in all respects to Chile nitrate. It can be mixed with superphosphate without causing appreciable loss of nitrogen or retrogradation of phosphoric acid. Its hygroscopic character makes its application somewhat inconvenient, but if it possesses, in contrast with Chile nitrate, the advantage of adding to the soil lime, an indispensable plant food, instead of soda, the accumulation of which may be injurious to vegetation.

It appears probable that Chile salt-peter will, before long, be supplanted by nitrates obtained from atmospheric nitrogen. The direct, and the most economical process now in use are commercially practicable in their present form, only where water power is cheap, but these processes are susceptible of great improvement. An efficiency equal to that of most other processes of industrial chemistry would make it commercially feasible to produce nitrates everywhere. At present the nitric acid obtained from the air is neutralized with lime, while most of the world's production of sulphuric acid is employed in the manufacture of superphosphates. If this nitric acid could be used to convert the tribasic calcium phosphate into the superphosphate, an enormous saving could be effected, and a fertilizer produced which would contain both soluble phosphoric acid and nitrogen in a form suitable for assimilation, and would drive every other nitrogenous or phosphated fertilizer out of the market.

Cyanamides. The difficulty of applying the light cyanamide powder has been overcome by adding a little water to it. A new compound, the quicklime of the crude cyanamide and forms a coarse powder called granulated cyanamide which is much more convenient in use. A still better form is oil cyanamide, made by mixing the fine powder with 4 per cent of crude petroleum. The proportion of nitrogen in commercial cyanamide has been increased by improvements in manufacture from 15 per cent to about 20 per cent, that of pure calcium cyanamide being about 35 per cent. Cyanamide has now fairly entered into agricultural practice. The trust which controls the sale of the product in Germany and Italy sold 3,000 tons of cyanamide in the first half of last year.

Calcium cyanamide (CN)<sub>2</sub>, treated with water and carbon dioxide yields dicyanamide (CN)<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub>. In the form of nearly insoluble colorless crystals, which contain 58 per cent of nitrogen and form the richest nitrogenous fertilizer ever produced. In some cases the cost of production of dicyanamide may be counterbalanced by the economy in transportation. Applied to wheat in the quantity of 20 or 40 pounds per acre, it has produced excellent results.

Gullin has proved that more than one-fifth of the nitrogen of cyanamide is converted into ammonia in one week and more than one-third in two weeks, by the action of soil moisture. Munz and Nottin observed in two months a production of nitric acid corresponding to 1/12 of the nitrogen of the cyanamide added to the soil.

The poisonous action on plants which was at first attributed to cyanamide fertilizers appears to have no existence or to be due to impurities. The germinating power of wheat treated with pure cyanamide or dicyanamide is not diminished but is sometimes increased. Munz and Nottin, however, observed a temporary arrest of growth after the application of cyanamide in hot dry weather, and therefore advised the selection of a wet period for its application.

## IF FERTILIZERS CONTAINING MANGANESE.

Manganese is widely distributed in nature and plays an important part in the formation of the diastases which are the principal agents in vegetable growth. Naganaka, in Japan applied manganese sulphate to rice plantations in quantities equivalent to from 16 to 55 pounds of Mn<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> per acre, and obtained increases of crop of from 21 to 37 per cent. The beneficial effect persisted to a smaller extent, through the following year. Manganese chloride, a waste product of the chlorine industry, exerts a similar action.

In Europe, Voelcker and others have obtained increases in the crop of wheat up to 20 per cent from the application of from 25 to 60 pounds of manganese sulphate per acre. Excessively doses (100 pounds) diminished the crop. Similar results were obtained with oats.

Gregoire, Hendrick and Corpiux observed little benefit from the application of manganese to sugar beets, but Gaudin obtained increases of 40 per cent in roots and 26 per cent in sugar from manganese chloride and of 24 per cent in roots and 65 per cent in sugar from manganese sulphate. A 100 pound application of the sulphate increasing the richness of the juice.

With like results obtained the surprising increase of 54 per cent in totally dry weight from manganese chloride, and 21 per cent from manganese sulphate. It concludes from his analyses that the manganese applied is assimilated by the plants and that the difference in molecular weight of the chloride and sulphate determines the degree of influence on the formation of diastase.

But this effect cannot be wholly due to the mass given which is assimilated, for Borland found no more manganese in oat plants, the growth of which had been increased by manganese, than in the control plants in which no manganese had been applied. And recent American experiments have produced no fertilizing results at all, and in fact, destroying the toxins in the soil by the preceding crops. Usuable manganese salts might be expected to promote the oxidation of these toxins. Manganese oxides, traces of which occur in most soils, is the cause. The greatest proportion of success has been obtained with manganese sulphate.

#### THE STIMULANTS AND INHIBITORS

American experimenters have revived the old theory of De Candoles, and proved that infertility may be due to poisonous excretions. It is conceivable that minute doses of powerful poisons might destroy these excretions or prevent their formation.

**Copper Salts.** The salts of copper have long been employed for the purpose of destroying fungus parasites of the grape, and fields of young grain can be freed of certain insects by the use of copper salts. Grain plants by spraying with a 1 per cent solution of copper sulphate. Quite recently J. P. L. has increased the yield of maize by from 25 to 36 per cent by making the soil in a copper bath. In England it has been practiced. The bath was composed of 3 parts by weight of copper sulphate, 30 parts of starch and 1,000 parts of water.

**Zinc.** Javillier, in France, has shown the presence of zinc in many plants that this metal must perform some function in vegetable physiology made an extensive series of experiments which proved that individual quantities of zinc were essential to the growth of mold and yeast fungi and some chlorophyll-bearing plants. For example the growth of a certain mold was stimulated by cultivation in a medium containing 1 part of zinc in 50,000,000. The maximum increase was produced by proportion between 1 in 10,000,000 and 1 in 25,000 and still stronger solutions exerted an unfavorable or toxic influence. Merz and De Haven find that zinc salts promote the germination of wheat.

**Alum.** The large proportion of alumina found in the ash of certain cereal plants (more than 50 per cent in the Australian *Oryza ceylonica*) led Yanoano to try the effect of various fertilizers. Common alum, added in the proportion of 1/5 per cent to the water in which young barley plants were growing quickly killed the plants, but proved much less injurious to barley when the soil was saturated. A distinct fertilizing effect, manifested by increase of crop was observed to follow the application of 1/20 per cent and 1/400 per cent solutions of ammonium alum to barley and that the effect of the ammonium having been carefully eliminated.

**Magnesia.** The presence of magnesia in all plants and in all soils long ago suggested the employment of magnesia as a fertilizer. Trebilcock's recent study of the influence of magnesia in the transformation of saccharose proves that magnesia can act as a ferment. Magnesian fertilizers were formerly employed, to some extent and with good results. In recent experiments magnesia has been found to increase the crop of grain potatoes and breads chiefly by promoting the assimilation of nitrogen.

**Bromine.** A few sodium bromide stimulating in very small doses and poisonous in larger doses to beans growing in pots. One part of bromide to 50 million 5 million and 1 million parts of earth produced increases of crop of 93, 48 and 29 per cent, respectively.

**Iodine and Florine.** Potassium iodide, applied in dilute solution, appears also to act as a stimulant or poison according to the dose. Aso and Busch obtained a large increase in the yield of wheat from about 140 pound of the salt per acre but very little increase from 1/2 pound while Holland diminished the crop of sugar beets by one-fourth by applying about 130

pound per acre. Analogous results were obtained by the same experimenters, with sodium fluoride, applied to the same crops.

**Rare Elements.** Cerium, like manganese, appears to act as a ferment. Aso finds thorium rather injurious than beneficial to vegetation. Nakamura has increased the yield of rice, growing in pots, by 70 per cent by mixing with the soil 1,000,000 of its weight of lithium carbonate, but a dose 10 times greater produced a smaller increase (50 per cent), cesium carbonate, in the same doses, produced increases of 12 1/2 and 9 per cent.

#### IV. BACTERIAL FERTILIZATION.

The discovery of the mechanism of nitrification and the fixation of atmospheric nitrogen by the bacteria of various nodules, now led to the idea of the process by the addition of nitrogen-fixing bacteria. In 1895 Nobil and Hiltner patented a process of inoculating peas and beans and the soil in which they grow by soaking the seed with an infusion of a gelatin culture of the bacteria of the root nodules. Bayer offered a pure culture of *Beijerinckia bacillus*, mixed with potato meal, but Markner soon concluded, from the contrary results obtained, that the preparation had failed to prove its value. In 1895 the United States Bureau of Agriculture distributed 12,000 boxes of bacterial cultures, which appear to have produced good results, in the majority of cases. But the effect of these preparations is uncertain, as the abrupt change of medium may avert the development of the bacteria. The soil naturally swarms with nitrifying bacteria, but their growth may be checked by various causes, but they have the same effect on the few millions that are added.

Blockhaus has endeavored to obtain harder varieties by cultivating the bacteria in a large mass of earth, but has obtained remarkable results, but in view of the uncertainty mentioned above, it is prudent to defer judgment until several more years of experiment have elapsed.

#### V. THE VALUE AND THE FUTURE OF THE NEW FERTILIZERS

The value of the nitrogenous fertilizers obtained by artificial methods has been abundantly and eloquently proved, but the same statement cannot be made in regard to the other new fertilizers every one of which has given contradictory results in the hands of different experimenters. Similar uncertainties, however, attended the earlier experiments with other chemical fertilizers the value of which is now universally recognized. We have learned how to use nutrient solutions and we shall learn to use them in the future. And this knowledge will be productive of incalculable benefit to agriculture.

#### CHARCOT AND THE ANTARCTIC.

Let any one should suggest that Dr. Charcot went to the Antarctic largely for the purpose of reaching the pole it may be said at the outset that his chief object was one of scientific research only. He only reached latitude 70 degrees, and therefore can hardly compare in achievement with his predecessors, and notably with Shackleton and Scott. What he did was to explore a region of archipelagoes and waterways, of which very little is known, and to broaden our knowledge of an ice barrier which extends westward from the South Shetland Islands unbroken.

Although Dr. Charcot returns with more of the aurilla of Shackleton and Scott, his explorations will be of much assistance to future Antarctic explorers. From the meager account of his findings it would seem that any attempt to approach the pole by way of the strait of the South Shetland Islands is doomed to failure, and that Commander Peary's plan of attacking the pole is a direction opposite to that pursued by Shackleton is hopeless. So far the only reached point of the pole out any promise at all is the base of Ross's ice barrier, where the volcano Erebus and Terror are to be found. Here and here only can an expedition winter not more than a few hundred miles from the pole.

#### The Current Supplement.

THE CURRENT SUPPLEMENT, No 1723, contains some very striking illustrations of the Paris flood, which clearly and vividly set out the what was to be suffered from the foundation. Mr. H. P. Stimpson contributes an excellent article on efficiency in ship operations, in which he shows how ship efficiency can be increased as well as some points of view. Another paper on explosives for use in coal mines by Munroe and Hall is presented. The second and concluding installment of the article on the Wright brothers, containing a very interesting account of the life and the briefs is published. E. P. Buffe concludes his splendid biography of Leonardo da Vinci, in which he pays a tribute to that great man's engineering ability. When the Nobel Prize was awarded to Mr. Mar-

coni, he read a paper at Stockholm, in which he summarized the recent development of wireless telegraphy. That paper is published in the current Supplement.

#### An Injunction Against Paulhan.

Judge Hand, in an opinion filed in the United States Circuit Court, granted the injunction pendente lite asked for by the Wright Company against Louis Paulhan, the French aviator, alleged to be taking in his exhibition flights here a machine which is an infringement of the patents granted to Orville and Wilbur Wright. This decision prohibits Mr. Paulhan from using his machine in the territory pending the trial of the Wrights' suit against him.

After discussing the prior discoveries cited by the defense, Judge Hand in conclusion says:

"It is, of course, unusual for a preliminary injunction before any adjudication and without any acquiescence. However, when the right is not seriously attacked, and when the infringement is clear, the court should not hesitate to interfere."

"From the showing made I cannot doubt that the complainants first put into any practical form the system of three-rudder control. That there may be other systems is not the point. Let the defendant use those if he will. Nor is it necessary to conclude that the complainants were the first to try. Upon that I decide nothing whatever, for it is not an issue in the case."

"All I do say is that I cannot find that anyone prior to their patent had the invention of this system, and that the changes from the specifications which the defendant had made are no more than equivalents which do not relieve from infringement."

"It is quite clear that to grant a preliminary protection a writ must go *pendente lite*, because the defendant, being a non-resident, who is here transiently, there is no way in which they may insure themselves of the monopoly they have acquired except by preventing his use of it at once."

#### A Library in the Sahara.

The French Colonel Gaden, who recently led an expedition into the southwestern region of the Sahara, found in the desert a small collection of books, one of the most powerful prizes there, the Sheikh Sidi, was the founder and possessor of a rather large library, a report of which is published in the latest number of the *Revue de l'Armée*. This collection is small, indeed, when measured by our ideas of such a foundation, for it contains only 683 books and 512 manuscripts. Still it not only gives the most urgent needs of books in the desert, but also provokes most lively interest in consequence of its composition.

Approximately the books comprise thirty groups relating especially to Koranic doctrine, the doctrine of faith, history, jurisprudence, philosophy, travel and discovery, poetry and fiction, married life, magic recipes, interpretation of dreams and astrology. The library, therefore, bears the impress of every ordinary, which is further manifested by its lack of books from forbidden provinces, such as philosophy and the natural sciences, but already the existence of printed books, the production of which is deemed a serious contradiction of the strict tenor of the Koran, proves that the revolution in the production of books, which began in Bismillah toward the end of the eighteenth century, has today reached citizenship in the whole Islamic world, and that at no remote day also in this circle of culture and of passionate political aspiration and achievement the printed book will force the written book into a very dim background. Islam, long obstructed by cross legends of every kind, is now among them books especially, which could have exercised a most beneficial influence on its daily life. It is now quickening by the frequent book in its own tongue, which comes galloping from European publishers, even into the precincts of its haughtiest orthodoxy. The printed book is already an irresistible leaven in Islam.

#### Death of Alfred Spear.

Alfred Spear, of Pease, N. J., died at his home in his 87th year. He was one of the first who ever conceived the idea of a moving sidewalk. His model interested such men as Peter Cooper, Horace Greeley, and several other prominent men. The scheme had so much to commend it that two Legislatures, those of 1873 and 1874, authorized the use of his sidewalk, but the Governor of the State vetoed the bill.

#### The Sentimentality of the Telephone.

Proctor has calculated that an audible sound is produced in a telephone by a current of 6 by 10<sup>-10</sup> amperes, and Pellat has calculated that a sound is produced by a difference of potential between the two electrodes, amounting to only .0001 volt. These calculations give some idea of the great sensitiveness of the modern telephone, but the sensitiveness of the human ear, which perceives the invariable vibrations of the telephone diaphragm, is, in no way, less remarkable.

# Correspondence.

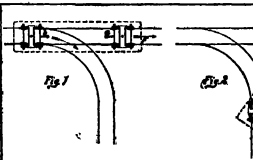
## HOW A TROLLEY CAR REVERSED ITS POSITION.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:—  
On January 20th, 1910, about 3.40 P. M., a curious and unique accident happened in regard to limited car No. 230, D. and F., at the crossing of Main and Ash Streets, Lima, Ohio. The phenomenon was so remarkable that I have desired to make this report of it, and if you see fit you may lay it before your readers.

The car was headed south on Main Street, running perhaps ten or twelve feet per hour. At the crossing in Ash Street, where connection is made with the city line, the rear truck left the main line and followed the Ash Street line, and the car body turned completely end for end, returning almost completely to the main line. Neither truck was at any time off the rails and even the trolley wheel was still in working contact with the overhead wire when the car stopped. The brake rod connections were all stripped and torn loose, also the wire connections from controllers to motors were severed. No one was seriously injured, and a casual observer coming on the scene, as the writer did, a few minutes after the occurrence would not notice that anything out of the ordinary had transpired.

The attached diagram shows five positions assumed by the car in the wonderful evolution. The relative position of the truck with reference to the body and also to the tracks is shown, the end of the truck normally positioned toward the center of the car body being indicated by a *P*. The end of the car headed south before the accident is indicated in this figure by *P*.

Fig. 1 indicates the status of things when the truck



is about to turn from the main line. Figs. 2, 3, 4, and 5 show intermediate positions, and Fig. 6 the car when it came to rest. E. B. KARAN, Piqua, Ohio.

[The mere momentum of the car would not account for the return of the car to the main line. The fact that the trolley wheel remained on the line suggests that the motorman must have reversed the rear motor, which acted to push the car back in the reversed position to the main line.—Ed.]

## MRS. FRANK REYNOLDS TO MRS. WORKMAN.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:—  
Having observed in your issue of February 12th a letter in reference to the altitude of Mount Huascarán and my record from Mrs. Workman, may I state my own position a little more definitely?

After making the ascent of Mount Huascarán, north peak, September 2nd, 1908, of which I brought back absolute proof in the shape of photographs, I gave my reasons for believing the mountain to have an altitude of 14,000 feet, although on account of the high wind I had been unable to take hypsometric observations on the summit.

Naturally, I did not expect the scientific world or anyone else to regard my estimate as an exact measurement. If anyone did so, I cannot be responsible.

It was, of course, quite within the province of any one to take so great an interest in the matter as to spend some thousands of dollars in sending engineers to Peru to make a triangulation of the mountain, and to publish this as the absolute height of Huascarán.

There is, however, something to be said in regard to the accuracy of such triangulations. Permit me to quote from the recent work of Mr. A. L. Mumm (of the English Alpine Club), "Five Months in the Himalayas":

"The results of triangulations do not always agree and even when they practically coincide, they cannot be accepted as absolutely unimpeachable. There is good reason to suppose that the effect of refraction is not yet sufficiently understood for the altitudes made by it to be perfectly accurate and the higher and more rugged the mountains, the greater is the possibility of error. Measuring these facts in mind, it will be apparent that anyone who starts to form a decided opinion as to what persons are entitled to the honor of having reached the highest altitudes has a very pretty chance to unravel and I will leave it to their own hands to make the best of it. It is not, I think, too much to say that no one has yet made a good use of the way in which a good opportunity to establish the result of a problem."

Another distinguished authority is Dr. Norman J. Collins (also of the English Alpine Club), who has had

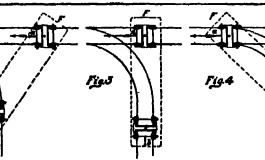
much experience in the Himalayas and who stated to Prof. H. G. Parker that the amount to be allowed for refraction on high snow mountains was most uncertain, that therefore the altitude of the great Himalayan peaks, though given in precise figures, was still in doubt.

Furthermore, I once met a former member of the British Royal Engineers who told me that the triangulation of the well-known mountain K<sup>2</sup> recently at ten miles by the Duke of the Abruzzi, was made by a friend of his, whose allowance for refraction was double what he thought should have been made. With the smaller allowance K<sup>2</sup> would be about 4000 feet higher than it is now reported to be.

It is therefore obvious that if similar allowance for refraction is made on Huascarán, it may easily happen, especially in a country with a much drier atmosphere than India, that the mountain is 1,000 or 2,000 feet higher than has been figured.

Accordingly while it is perfectly proper for all who desire to do so to accept the figures of the triangulation, regardless of the careful estimate of myself and of the Swiss guides and of the evidence of the photographs, no one need feel obliged to accept those figures as final.

To Anconagua being the highest of the Andes, I may say that aside from Huascarán there are several mountains which may prove when carefully measured to be of greater altitude than Anconagua. In this connection it may not be wholly out of place to say that while Mrs. Panny Hollick Workman has, according to the newspapers frequently announced her readiness to furnish evidence of the altitudes claimed by herself, when I wrote to her stating that I should be glad to see the figures of her observations, an intimation shared by some other Alpinists she informed me that they had not been published in any of her



writings, nor did she offer to give them to me personally. ANNE H. PUCK, New York, N. Y.

## The Aeronautic Show at Boston.

The first exhibition of aeroplanes, balloons, and automatic apparatus exclusively to be held in the United States was held in Mechanics Hall, Boston, Mass., from the 10th to the 23rd instant. This first Aeronautic Show, although fairly representative of the different experiments, was somewhat of a disappointment in that there were no motor-driven heavier-than-air machines exhibited that have actually shown, while 50 per cent of the power machines were shown without motors. This fact, however, did not deter one from getting a good idea of the design and construction of the aeroplanes proper.

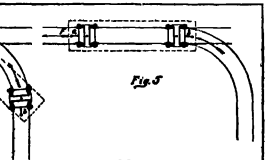
The most reliable light weight motors at a reasonable price is still a burning one, and a fortune awaits the man who will produce such motors—of 25 and 50 horsepower respectively—to supply them to aviators upon easy terms. Most different makes of motors were on exhibition, three of these (Curtiss, Cameron, and Harriman) being of the 4-cylinder 4-cyle type, two (Waterman and Duryea) of the 4-cyle two-cylinder type, and one (Cordage Company and Biffum) of the 4-cyle, 8-cylinder and 12-cylinder V type respectively. An Elbridge 3-cylinder water-cooled 3-cyle motor was also shown on the Wright type biplane of P. P. Schader. The 25-horsepower 4-cylinder Duryea motor which was shown upon the Bleriot type monoplane of Stanley V. Beach, is air-cooled by means of thin copper strips wired to the cylinders. The Cameron 4-cylinder 4-cylinder of 50 and 45 horsepower respectively are also air-cooled with the usual cast flange. The smaller of these two motors and the Duryea motor both weigh about 300 pounds, while the 25-horsepower 4-cylinder motor weighs 350 pounds.

The Curtiss 4-cylinder 4-cylinder of 50 and 45 horsepower respectively are also air-cooled with the usual cast flange. The smaller of these two motors and the Duryea motor both weigh about 300 pounds, while the 25-horsepower 4-cylinder motor weighs 350 pounds. The Curtiss 4-cylinder 4-cylinder of 50 and 45 horsepower respectively are also air-cooled with the usual cast flange. The smaller of these two motors and the Duryea motor both weigh about 300 pounds, while the 25-horsepower 4-cylinder motor weighs 350 pounds. The Curtiss 4-cylinder 4-cylinder of 50 and 45 horsepower respectively are also air-cooled with the usual cast flange. The smaller of these two motors and the Duryea motor both weigh about 300 pounds, while the 25-horsepower 4-cylinder motor weighs 350 pounds.

The Harriman is a special 4-cylinder motor of 50 horsepower and weighs 300 pounds. It has copper water jackets and aluminum crank-case. The bore and stroke are 5 inches. The 4-cylinder V-type motor has crank-case and cylinders cast of malleable iron. The cylinders are lined with cast iron and the pistons also are of a special grade of this metal. The bore and stroke are each 4 inches. The output is 50 horse power at 1,300 revolutions per minute. The 12-cylinder V-type Duryea motor is constructed similarly to the last, on each row of cylinders being cast in one piece with the upper part of the crank-case and afterward being bored and lined with cast iron. This motor is beautifully finished. Its weight complete is 415 pounds, and an output of 100 horse power is claimed for it at 1,800 revolutions per minute.

Upon entering the large main hall of Mechanics Building the visitor saw upon the right the Bleriot and Antoinette type monoplanes of the 8-horsepower airplane and Alsbury Company of New York. The former of these machines which is fitted with a 4-cylinder air-cooled 2-cylinder motor, which has been found to be very efficient. A novel type of steering gear having two superimposed wheels was also fitted. Opposite these two machines were two Wright type biplanes of Frederick P. Schader. The finished one of these two machines had movable flaps upon the rear edges of the wings instead of the warping arrangement used by the Wrights.

Proceeding onward toward the hall, the visitor met saw two new monoplanes—one (the Moroc) a small dismantlable Bleriot type machine having wings laced upon steel tubing and the other (the Burlington) a



large monoplane with truss inclined struts running from the bottom of the wheel frame to the ends of the wings. A 4-horsepower Harriman motor, disconnected to a large and thick propeller, was placed at the front of this monoplane.

A biplane that attracted considerable attention was that of Victor P. The biplane has a rectangular central body and extremely thick wings with a deep curvature. A novel revolving 4-cylinder motor (the L. A. W.) was involved in front, so the propeller mounted upon it could be directed upward or downward.

The Hayward and Erickson biplanes were constructed entirely of bamboo. In general outline they resembled the Curtiss, as did also the Winson & Downey and the Herring machines, both by the Starling Burgess Company, a well known bi-building concern of Marblehead, Mass. This machine, in general appearance resembling the Curtiss biplane, was mounted upon three round solid wheels being used.

The horizontal rudder was worked by the aviator's feet and the vertical rudder by hand. A long inclined rod was placed across the middle of the machine, with the aviator's feet introduced in the guy wires, no turnbuckles being used. The poles that carry the front and rear rudders were all hollow. A Curtiss motor of a 4-horsepower propeller at Mr. Irving's design was fitted. The machine complete weighed less than 400 pounds. The propeller is said to give 250 pounds thrust, which, it is claimed, is ample to start the machine on any ground of the slide. The stability device for lateral equilibrium was not exhibited.

There were also several gliders on view, and a large number of models of all kinds, most of which were built by boys. The most notable one was a model of the New England Aero Club's balloon in the very mid die of the hall, inflated almost to its full capacity. This balloon has made 45 ascensions and has traveled 1,251 miles. Last season it carried the basket of its 30-passenger 190,000 cubic foot balloon. A huge hot air balloon from which a trapeze performer made five parachute drops at Coney Island last summer is also to be seen.

## THE COCHIN FOREST RAILWAY

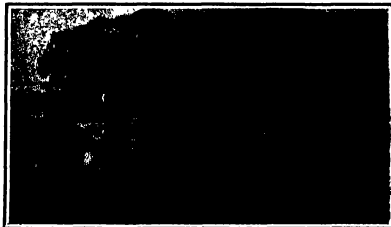
BY EDWARD HARRAN

The Cochin Forest Tramway is an interesting little line of tramway on the water gauge in the semi-independent State of Cochin in South India. It runs slightly to the north of the 10th parallel of latitude and to the east of the 75th parallel of longitude, and owes its origin to the fact that the forests of Cochin form one of the most valuable assets of the State, their approximate area being 505 square miles, or nearly one-half of its entire extent. Their commercial importance is well stated, was vaguely realized as far back as the beginning of last century, but the earlier attempts to work them were of the usual spasmodic and unsystematic nature which characterized original efforts in forestry throughout the Indian peninsula. In the year 1825, however, a regular forest department, under the control of a European officer, was formed and worked for some thirty years on old-fashioned lines. Though the department throughout this period brought in a certain amount of revenue to the

State, that a land route, provided means of transportation over it were available, would tap a far richer forest area than a proposed river route alone, while, of course, it would be open all the year round. So it came about that the idea of a tramway in three sections across, was recommended to and sanctioned by the Durbar. The first section was to cover a distance of 8 miles in the valley, to be followed by a self-acting inclined tramway 5,000 feet long. The second section, 4½ miles long, was to be followed by a slide 7,000 feet long, whence the third section, also 4½ miles long, was to extend to the Kurumali River, from which point timber could be floated to the railway station at Trichur during the monsoonal period and carted to the Chalakudi Station in the dry weather. According to this first propounded scheme, timber from the hitherto unworked Parambikolam Forest was to have been floated by the Parambikolam River to the tramway terminus in the valley. A visit paid by his

logs both at the head and foot of the slide proved expensive. To remedy this latter, the conversion of the slide into another self-acting incline was decided upon. To remedy the first, Mr. Alwar Chetty recommended, and the Durbar sanctioned, another extension of the tramway, one of 16 miles to Chalakudi, to meet the Shoranur-Cochin Railway at that station, a connection, with the acquiescence of the Madras Railway authorities, being made between the railway and tramway there.

Today the total length of the line as it stands completed at the time of writing is 49½ miles divided into three sections. The first section extends from mile 1 to 21, the second from mile 21½ to 37, and the third from mile 38 to 49½. The first and second sections are connected by a self-acting wire rope manipulated double way of 1½ miles, while the second and third sections are similarly connected by another incline a mile in length.



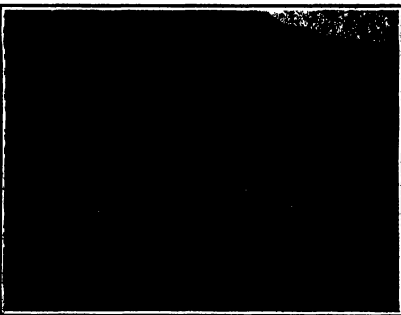
The logging locomotive, truck, and caboose.



Stone-and-timber bridge on the line of the Cochin Forest Railway.



Elephants moving logs for shipment.



A train of timber cars. Note the density of the forest growth.

## THE COCHIN FOREST RAILWAY

State, there was little or no pretense made of administering the forests on scientific principles, with the more or less natural result that while the interior of the forest area (from which there were no facilities for transporting the cut timber) remained practically untouched, work being confined to the more accessible portions and those from which transport was easy. It was not until the year 1895 that a move for the better was made, when suggestions were made by the Resident, Sir James Thomson, which culminated, early in 1897, in the Madras government placing at the disposal of the Cochin State a British forest officer, Mr. Poulsen, for the purpose of inspecting the forests and formulating proposals for their better and more profitable administration. This gentleman's report included the recommendation that the services of a trained and experienced forest officer be obtained, and, acting in accordance with this suggestion, the Cochin Durbar obtained from the Madras government the loan of Mr. V. Alwar Chetty T.P.S. for a period of seven years. His first care was to inaugurate a period of rest for the overworked area of timber and to set about securing a suitable outlet for the prospective output of the then virgin forests. Surveys disclosed the

highness the Maharaja of Cochin to the Parambikolam and Nellikuzhi forests in October, 1903, suggested a revision of this scheme which provided for the extension of the proposed tramway to Parambikolam, an additional 12½ miles, the experience gained during the preceding year or two having shown conclusively that the Parambikolam River could not be relied upon to carry every year anything like a year's full yield of timber. A survey of this extension was made by Mr. Haidrover, a specially engaged engineer, in 1904.

According to the original scheme, the traction of the timber trucks was to have been by manual labor, but when the length of the proposed line amounted to 31 miles, it was recognized that manual labor would prove both too expensive and too laborious, and in September, 1904, locomotive engine traction was finally decided upon. The modifications of the original scheme already alluded to necessitated a full reconsideration of other portions of it, chiefly the proposed combined river and road transport which it was anticipated would not clear the accumulations of timber. Also in practical working it was found that a timber slide, especially in the case of lengthy and heavy logs, was unsatisfactory, and the handling of

Throughout its whole length the Cochin Forest State Railway is excellently constructed. The gauge is 1 meter; the average gradient of the line 1 in 80 and the maximum gradient 1 in 25 which gradient occurs on the third of the five inclines which have been unobscured in the construction.

The inclined ways are so constructed as to be self-acting, and three of them are situated in series between 21 and 23 miles and the other two between 26½ and 28½ miles. They are worked by means of wire cables controlled from brake houses by gear brakes independent of each other, and consisting of horizontal wheels round which the cables pass two or three times. The inclines are double railed with suitable cross-over points at the uphill side of each brake house. The points are so arranged that a descending load, which involves down by force of gravity, requires practically no uphill shunting; the locomotive pushes the truck, which on being uncoupled is then ready for the descent. In some cases, however, empty trucks going up have to be hand-shunted after being phased, in order to place them on the side of the upper incline on which the traction rope lies. The upper few points are of 1½ mile pitch, most work, the lower

passes over a grooved pulley 4 feet diameter, after which it forms a figure 8 over a loom pulley back again over another 4 foot pulley mounted on the same shaft as the first and thence to the other line.

On the vertical shaft on which these two pulleys are, and on which the rope blades are mounted two horizontal drum pulleys each 4 feet diameter  $3\frac{1}{4}$  inches broad with  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch flanges. Steel hand brakes  $3\frac{1}{4}$  inch thick and 8 inches broad studded with hard wood brake blocks 6 inches long can be applied to these drums by powerful linked levers controlled by hand wheels and screws, to control the speed of the lead descending the incline. The grooved pulleys round which the rope blades are filled in with leather sections on and grain to give a good grip. The cast iron portion of these wheels is suitably dovetailed out to contain the leather packing.

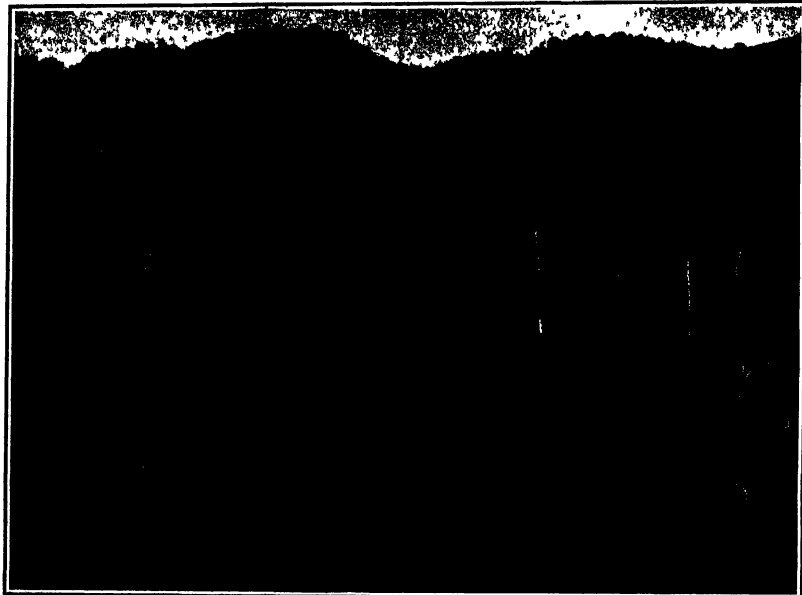
The first second and fourth of the five inclined ways are on curves round which curves the wire ropes are guided by vertical rollers. On the straight portion of the incline the cable is supported by horizontal rollers placed 30 feet apart. Illustrations of one of

silent examination Prof. Moer has yet made. In this cave were found four such layers of clay separated by layers of ashes. While relics of the new stone-age were found in the first and second layer of ashes in the third and fourth layers were discovered remains of the palæolithic mammal land snails the bony scales of the swamp-turtle and a mammal fauna such as the otter beaver goat stag and wild boar which manifestly point to the fact that the first cave-dwellers resorted to the fresh water districts for their sustenance while the later cave-dwellers found a much more generous source of nourishment along the coast. An important fact is the presence in these oldest layers of frequent tools and to the same layers belong the especially interesting art objects engravings on animal bone described pictorially many of them in the Professor's report. On a polished piece of stone horn for instance may be seen the rudely made drawing of a human figure that stands between two tree-trunks showing many branches. As in the old drawings of children the head is represented by a round depression and hands and feet by striae slightly curved

Moer cave and very recently the Professor found a well-preserved human lower jawbone in the so-called Cave of the Bears. Sandstones marked with grooves made by whetting the bone tools on them prove that the caves were also the workshops of the cave-dwellers. A high degree of development is shown by the pottery vessels formed by a free hand are made of mud not only in their form and material but also in their decoration one place being marked with a broad spiral band immediately on either side of which the depressions of the vessels are filled with white color in which are the ears of corn and leaves of palm which ornament the band. This place almost reminds one of the decoration of Mycenaean pottery.

#### Have Fishes Memory?

Studies as to the mental powers of animals have already been made on several occasions but only recently have inquiries been made as to whether fishes have a memory or not. Results have shown traces of it in many both in coral-reefs and in other divisions of the deep. Experiments have been made with a



Part of the main line with empty trains on a giant  
THE COCHIN FOREST RAILWAY

these inclines are here reproduced. The rolling stock of the Cochin Forest Railway consists solely of open trucks specially designed for carrying lumber with swivelled bogies and chilled cast-iron wheels.

#### The Art of the Cave-Dweller.

A very noteworthy discovery of caves which has brought to light a number of art objects of the oldest inhabitants is reported by Prof. Moer in a late number of *Monatsschrift*. In a depression which has the appearance of a trough of the valley extending from the Karst (Austrian) plateau Trieste Nabresina Dolina, to the Volcanic Mountains are found numerous caves to which leads a gate of rock under the projecting wall of the cliff. Their interiors are rooms small or spacious, which were first only places of sojourn for the Karst cave-dwellers who originally nomads later settled down to habitual residence in them. That the caves have served a long time as abodes is proven by the fact that in them are found frequent very thick layers of clay interstratified twice, thrice, four times, with ashes. In the latter are relics of the household. Among the caves visited the Rothgart cave, situated near the station of the Southern Railway, near Nabresina, was subjected to the most per-

sonal examination. On a second engraved piece of bone a jawbone that was found in the third layer of ashes is pictured with a contour of almost straight lines a wild boar of which the head is almost triangular the tusks being clearly drawn the eyes and ears being faintly indicated the bristles on its back appearing with perfect distinctness and the curl in its tail being rather indistinct. That the artist of the cave sought to reproduce the aspect of nature in which he had often seen and slain the wild boar is shown by the high grass in which the animal stands and which is represented by strong incisions. On a third bone is easily recognized the head of a sea-turtle with eyes and deeply cleft mouth the scales and folds of the skin are indicated by easy strokes and above the head is a sufficient hint of a fluttering dragonfly and not far from it are tufts of reed. The two last engraved pieces of bone the Professor attributes to an early settlement in the new stone-age while the awkward portrayal of the man may be considered as derived from the old stone-age.

While the layers of ashes contained a generous number of finely worked tools of bone and pieces of ornament, the occurrence of relics of man himself is restricted to two specimens with additions from the

earl fishes but the most striking results have been obtained with the gray perch which lives chiefly on a small silvery hued sardine. Some of these were taken and colored red and were then put into the tank where the perch was with several other silver-colored sardines. Of course the normal ones were at once attacked and eaten but it was not till hungry that the perch made a tentative meal of one of the red-colored victims on recognizing the sardine flavor however he promptly demolished it. The remainder subsequently the specimens in the tank devour the sardines irrespective of color thus showing not only that it is a voracious but also the power of differentiation. Subsequently sardines colored red and blue were placed in the tank together with the silver ones. The same scene was repeated the blue ones not being attacked till the others were eaten and hunger compelled. In investigation of the new comers. After this introduction the perch ate the sardines of all the colors with out any difficulty. Some specimens of the sea snail (Littorina) were then fastened to the blue sardines. These were at once avoided by the perch who promptly got out of the way of the new comers. This showed traces of memory as the results of contact with the sea snails were clearly shown and recognized.

# THE NEWLY DISCOVERED GOBLIN SHARK OF JAPAN

BY DR. L. HUSSAKOF

Every month then the zoological world is startled by the announcement of the discovery in Japanese waters of some very rare or very ancient type of animal. So often is this the case that zoologists have come to look upon the Japanese Islands as a sort of naturalist's wonder-land—a preserve in which live all manner of interesting animals some of them of an archaic type long extinct in other parts of the world. The expectation of remarkable discoveries in these waters is so strong that I have heard a distinguished naturalist, who has been to himself well acquainted with Japanese waters, say that he would be greatly surprised to hear some day that a real Monoceros or Ichthyosaurus had been hooked in the depths of a *Yezo* bay or warm current. (Linn. Soc. Jour., 1890.)

It is in these waters that Japanese fishermen occasionally take on their lines a shark whose grotesqueness has won him among natives the name of *Tenguane* or goblin shark. One of these "goblins" came into the hands of President

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It is now to be recorded that a second species of goblin shark has turned up in a most unexpected way. It happened thus. All of the sharks caught in Japan in the past years and

ment to the various specimens — about twenty in all — were looked upon as belonging to the same species, *S. caudatus*. No one had ever thought of comparing several specimens. In fact, these sharks are so rare in museums that comparison is generally quite out of the question. It was therefore a pleasure for the writer to have had the opportunity of comparing several specimens in the collections at Columbia University and the American Museum of Natural History and to find among them a new species of the goblin shark. This has recently been described in the Bulletin of the American Museum of Natural History as *Alopias grahami* — the goblin shark of Jordan — the

given in honor of President Jordan, our greatest authority on the fish of Japan.

Now to come to the fish himself. As seen in the illustration (Fig 1) the new shark is certainly growing up to be a magnificent goblin. The largest specimen in this country is a 100 lb. male. Murnag at Washington measuring over eleven feet, and the species probably attains a length of fifteen. Fortunately it is not given to frequenting the bathing beach, but keeps deeper waters—usually about fifty feet. It is a voracious feeder, eating with gusto any water, that grows soft and pliable. Even after hardening to a preservative for several months, it can be rolled into a ball. The most remarkable feature is the uniform, mottled "snow" (shown in Fig 2) on the underside of the body. The construction is small, bony eyes, that gives the shark that "ugly" appearance.

appearance. The teeth (Fig 3) are sharp and slender, each like the pointed end of an awl. They constitute a most effective weapon, which must be fingered with discretion even on the laboratory table. As to the peculiar anatomical characters, suffice it to say that in the total make-up it is so different from all other sharks that President Jordan was at first inclined to classify the genus to which it belongs in a special family by itself.

As to the differences between the new species and the one already known, we need say only a few words




Fig. 1.—The newly discovered goblin shark (*Scapanorhynchus jordanii*).

The pictures show the differences at a glance even to the layman in matters ichthyological. The new form (lower picture) is distinguished by a much less pronounced jaw, by a very much smaller spiracle (the minute accessory gill pore seen at some distance back of the eye), and by the fact that the eye is situated opposite the middle of the jaw instead of back of it. These features are quite sufficient, in the opinion of experts, for separating our goby as a distinct "kind." To the general reader they may perhaps be of interest as examples of the degrees of difference which are used by specialists to distinguish species of fish.

The question as to which of the three forms of smoking, the pipe the cigarette, or the cigar, introduces the greatest proportion of nicotine into the smoker's system has never obtained a completely decisive answer, although it has received considerable discussion from time to time. At one time it was freely asserted that the tobacco which contained the

ter of fact, carbon monoxide is invariably found in all tobacco smoke, and that circumstance should be sufficient to warn all smokers against inhaling it persistently. Theories as to what happens in the combustion of tobacco in the various ways it is smoked next took into account the extent to which condensation products were formed and retained in the tobacco. The most effective condenser, of course, is the pipe, and there can be little doubt that owing to the length of the stem a comparatively small proportion of these condensation products reaches the mouth



real considerations very suitable for application by millionaires. Again, a cigar that has been partially smoked and then allowed to go out is decidedly unpleasant when re-lighted owing to the presence of condensation products to the mouth end. In the case of the pipe, the burning area is always in the same place, it never comes near the mouth, and therefore the probability is that the smoke and ash products do not reach the mouth in, at any rate, appreciable quantities. In the cigarette the condensation products eventually reach the mouth, but there is in this case less chance of condensation products being formed since the combustion is taking place, and the burning freely in contact with the air. The question of moisture, however, must not be left out in these considerations, for it is obvious that damp tobacco will form condensation products more readily than dry tobacco. It is probable, therefore, that a cigar or cigarette gives off less poisonous products than a damp one does, but not everyone smokes from choice a new cigar or an old cigarette. It is reasonable to assume that the amount of smoke reaching the mouth does not necessarily depend on the amount in the tobacco, but on the form in which it is smoked. In drawing this conclusion regard must, of course, be had to the quantity of air that becomes smoked, but if the conclusion is correct, the pipe would come first as the least harmful form of smoke, being smoked, then the cigarette, and lastly the cigar—largely

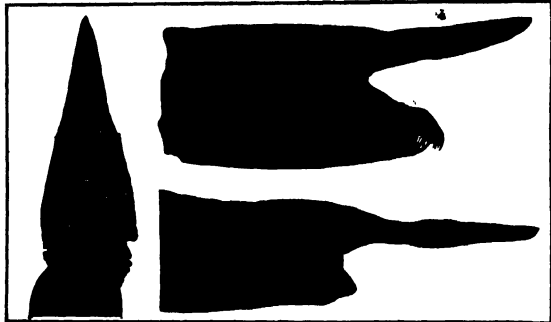
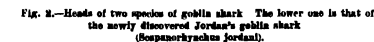


Fig. 3.—Under side of head of Jordan's goblin shark, showing mouth and teeth.



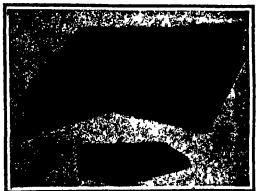
THE NEWLY DISCOVERED GORLIN SHARK OF JAPAN.

highest amount of nicotine necessarily tended to be the most injurious, no matter in what form it was smoked, but we now know that the form of smoking plays an important part. There was a theory that not in all three cases was the original nicotine in the tobacco converted as such to the mouth, sometimes it was destroyed by effective combustion, while at other times pyridine was responsible for toxic effects. According to this theory which was all on the right track the cigarette was least harmful, because the tobacco along the thin paper wrapper was exposed freely to the air and as a consequence the tobacco was destroyed. In all three cases the nicotine was destroyed. Against this it was held that in such a case one poison displaced only for another. It was pointed out that carbon monoxide was found in marked quantity in the carbonous constituent of cigarette smoke. As a matter



## FIREPROOF ARCH.

Pictured in the accompanying engraving is an arch used more particularly in fireproof work, which is of very simple construction. It consists of but two thin sections, each provided with an air space usually designated as a "vacuum." The usual I-beams be-



## FIREPROOF ARCH.

tween which the arch is formed are indicated at A and B. Each arch member comprises a top panel C, a bottom panel D and a side panel E thus giving the member the general shape of a wedge. At the point of the wedge one of the members is provided with a tongue F, while the other member is formed with a groove adapted to receive this tongue. When the two sections are fitted between the I-beams they are thus interlocked. A weight placed on the interlocked tiles produces an outward spreading thrust against the two I-beams A and B. To resist this thrust the I-beams are braced by means of cross rods, as indicated by dotted lines in the illustration. Our illustration shows part of the upper panel of one of the sections broken away to reveal the reinforcing which, in this case, consists of a netting of heavy iron or steel wire imbedded within the material. The lower panel is braced by means of bars G imbedded therein which extend up into the tongue F. They take the end thrust and materially strengthen this portion of the arch. The "vacuum" or wedge-shaped air space formed between the panels serve to prevent undue travel of heat through the arch in case of fire. A building having a large proportion of such arches is therefore to that extent rendered more nearly fireproof than would otherwise be the case. The inventor of this arch is Mr. Eugene F. Pittpatrick, of 158 Withers Street, Brooklyn, N. Y.

## MUFFLER FOR TELEPHONE TRANSMITTERS.

Unless one is using the telephone in a booth or in a quiet room it is impossible for him to exclude all local disturbing noises by stopping the ear that is not applied to the receiver, for the reason that the noises reach him by way of the transmitter of his own instrument. In order to eliminate all such disturbing sounds a very simple device has recently been invented which may be applied to any telephone transmitter. This device is illustrated in the accompanying engraving. It is extremely simple, consisting of two members hinged together, one of them being a ring-shaped plate adapted to be placed over the mouth of the transmitter and provided with ears which are bent back over the outside of the transmitter. A wire band is then fitted over the ears, and the latter are bent upward and hooked over the wire. Owing

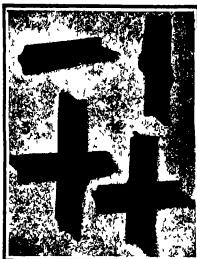


## MUFFLER FOR TELEPHONE TRANSMITTERS.

to the outwardly flaring form of the transmitter the device is thus firmly made fast. Between the ring-shaped plate and the transmitter is a strip of felt which serves to prevent vibrations that strike the plate from being communicated to the mouthpiece of the transmitter. The second member, which is hinged to the plate, is in the form of a flat cover provided on the inside with a lining of felt so that when it is closed down upon the other member it will exclude all sound from the transmitter. The hinged cover is provided with a finger piece, by which it may be opened whenever one desires to use the transmitter but at all other times it should be closed to exclude local noises. The inventor of this simple attachment for telephone transmitters is William D. Plumb, of 2223 Lexington Avenue, New York City.

## WROUGHT-STEEL BARRIERS.

In this the sanitary age we have come to recognize the importance of daylight in our work rooms as well as in our homes. The germicidal effect of sun light is well recognized. Add to this the fact that artificial light costs money, while sunlight is free, and nothing further need be said to demonstrate the superiority of the daylight shed, both from the sanitary and the economical point of view. Recently a new type of window sash has been devised for industrial buildings, which, it is claimed, by doing away with the cumbersome frame and heavy mullions makes it possible to deliver 35 per cent more light through a square opening than heretofore. The sash is of very simple construction, and yet is much stronger than the common wooden sash. It is better able to withstand the pressure of the wind, and furnishes no fuel to a fire. It is made of steel bars rolled to the cross section shown in the accompanying engraving. The method of joining these bars is very ingenious and decidedly unique. A small cross slot is made in the



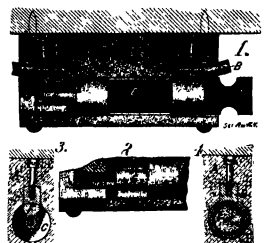
## NOVEL JOINT FOR WROUGHT-STEEL BARRIERS.

vertical bar (Fig. 2) of the sash just large enough to admit the flange of the horizontal bar. The molded part of the vertical bar is then pressed out so as to fold closely around the molded portion of the horizontal bar, as shown in Fig. 3. In the latter bar a small notch is cut as indicated in Fig. 1 in order that it will be observed that the amount of metal removed in making this joint is infinitesimal. The bars run without break from top to bottom of the window as well as from side to side, making a particularly strong framework, and the necessity of using a much lighter section than is possible with a miter joint construction, so that a great saving is effected in the weight of the material used and consequently in the ultimate cost of the sash. Furthermore, the unusual type of joint makes a break in the monotonous of the window sash which is pleasing to the eye. A patent on this type of sash has been secured by the Detroit Steel Products Company of Detroit, Mich.

## SAFETY FUSE BLOCK.

Heretofore when fuses such as the screw plug, ordinary cartridge, or the open wire type, have been used, it has been customary in making temporary installations, requiring a larger capacity than supplied by the block used in the original installation to remove the original fuse, and to substitute therefor one of larger and in many instances of a dangerously large carrying capacity. This has resulted in permitting a load to be introduced on the wires which has taxed and in some cases broken down the insulation by heat, resulting often in producing a dangerous fire. To obviate such possibilities the fuse block illustrated in the accompanying engraving has been devised. It is so arranged as to prevent the introduction between the terminals of a line of a fuse having a larger carrying capacity than is designed for the line. The block A is shown in

Fig. 1 is provided with a cylindrical compartment that opens at one end into a recess B and at the other end communicates through a partition F with a recess C. Each recess is fitted with a lug adapted to receive the terminal wires of the line. The lugs are engaged by screws that pass through the blocks and serve as binding posts to hold the line wires. The lug D in the recess B is provided with spring clips of accurate form adapted to grasp the body of the fuse. The lug F in the opposite recess is also provided with



## SAFETY FUSE BLOCK.

spring clips adapted to engage a boss G which projects from the end of the fuse. The use of the device with the usual metallic contact bands and one end is furnished with a handle H. All of the fuses adapted to be used with a block of a certain ampere carrying capacity are fitted with bosses of the same size. A fuse of larger carrying capacity, however, would have a boss of larger diameter. If one should attempt to insert a fuse of larger carrying capacity into the block the boss would fail to pass through the partition F and enter the clip F as shown in Fig. 2 and no contact would be made with the line terminals. The inventor of this electrical fuse block are Messrs. A. A. Moffitt and G. E. Andrews, of 40 Brigham Street, Providence, R. I.

## AUTOMATIC STOCK-SALTING DEVICE.

Cattle when housed or running free in a field need a limited supply of salt to maintain them in good condition. If the salt is placed in troughs mixed with feed some of the animals will prevent others from getting a proper amount of the salt. The accompanying engraving illustrates a device which affords free access to the stock for obtaining the requisite amount of salt and at the same time protects the salt from the elements and prevents waste. It consists of a cup-shaped receptacle which is hemispherical, as indicated at A in the illustration. A cover piece B is secured to the receptacle A by means of screws which are threaded into clip C formed on the member B. The cover piece is also hemispherical in shape, but is cut away at the forward side to admit the muzzle of the animal. A hood D is hinged to the cover B and serves normally to close the opening in the latter. At the forward side of the hood is a lip E which projects forward and is curved upward. The receptacle A is provided with a similar lip F, which however is curved downward thus leaving an opening which will expose the salt and attract the stock. In use a sufficient number of the salt holders are placed in the corral or the field where the stock ranges to enable the cattle to obtain the salt. The animal raises the hood by shoving his muzzle beneath the lip E and rocking the hood back until it engages a lug G. When the animal withdraws his muzzle from the salt holder the hood will close by gravity thus protecting the salt from exposure to the elements. Messrs. Frank and Thomas L. Peifer of Boston 111. (R. F. D. No. 2) have recently secured a patent on this salting device.



## AUTOMATIC STOCK-SALTING DEVICE.









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are the kind that last, last better and are better than the painted or galvanized kind.

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The certainty of figuring his time in transit to the exact hour relieves his engagement list from entanglement.

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Pennsylvania Special (18 hours between New York and Chicago) leaves New York 3:55 p.m. Downtown Tube 4:05 p.m. and arrives Chicago 8:55 a.m.

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A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS

Vol. CII.—No. 10.  
ESTABLISHED 1845.

NEW YORK, MARCH 3, 1910

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Displacement, 11,000 tons. Speed, 16.75 knots. Coal, 1,500 tons. Oil fuel, 400 tons. Armament: 12 11-inch, turret, 12 inches. 12 5-inch, starboard gun. Torpedo tubes, 10 each. Complement, 1,000.

THE "UTAH"—OUR LATEST DREADNOUGHT.—[See page 109.]





## TWO REMARKABLE SHOWS

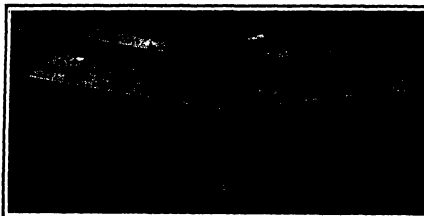
## NOVELTIES IN MOTOR BOATS AND AEROPLANES

The sixth annual motor boat show to be held in Madison Square Garden opened on February 19th and lasted one week. The show this year was larger than ever before there being, in great number, boats of various speeds and sizes exhibited. These varied from 10 feet to 40 ft in length and in motive power from 1 to 100 horse power. Altogether some fifty boats of various types were exhibited representing a total value of \$2,000. The largest exhibit of any one firm was that of the Electric Launch Company of Bayonne

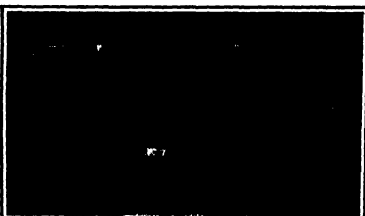
N. J. In addition to an electric launch having a radius of 100 miles on one charge, this company showed a 21 foot mahogany yacht tender fitted with a 40-horse-power gasoline motor and capable of a speed of 22 miles an hour, a larger boat fitted with the same size motor and having a speed of 18 miles an hour, and a 35 foot craft fitted with a 6 cylinder 60-horse-power motor and capable of a speed of 23 miles per hour with six or eight passengers. The most pretentious "babe" was a high-speed 54 foot cabin launch fitted

with a 60-horse-power 6-cylinder Standard motor, and capable of a speed of 15 miles per hour. This boat has a large open cockpit fore and aft for fair weather, and a spacious cabin amidships. The engine is placed forward in a separate compartment and the controlling levers and steering wheel are placed side by side. Other firms exhibited cruisers comparable in size to the boat just mentioned and fitted with all the conveniences needed on this type of craft.

(Continued on page 208)



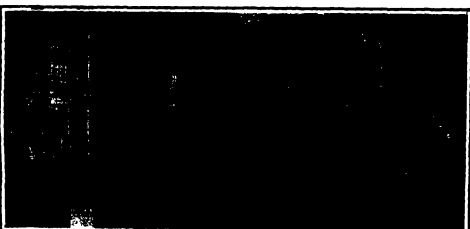
Panthan's Langley type prize-winning model aeroplane



General view of Boston Aeronautical Show; Monoplane Exhibit



Interesting full-size Aeroplanes exhibited at the Boston Aeronautical Show



The French Antoinette type monoplane appears in the foreground and the Hargitts monoplane in the rear distance. The gliders are seen between these two machines and the Hirths, Hirths appear on the platform in the distance.

The novel L. A. W. biplane, with its revolving cylinder, air cooled, 8-cylinder motor. The heavy curves and construction of the planes is a noticeable feature.



General view of the Sixth Annual Motor Boat Show in Madison Square Garden, New York.

TWO REMARKABLE SHOWS—NOVELTIES IN MOTOR BOATS AND AEROPLANES.



# RAPID PROGRESS OF THE NEW YORK STATE BARGE CANAL

## A RECORD OF RECENT ACHIEVEMENT

The large amount of work done on the New York State Barge Canal during the past year augurs well, not only for the completion of this great work within the contract time but for its being done within the estimate of total cost of \$10,000,000. Almost as much construction work was completed during the

aggregate of the work under contract is \$74,128,729. It is satisfactory to know that this has been accomplished at a saving of \$2,673,208 over the estimate of 1907 for the same work. Construction work to the value of more than \$16,000,000 has been done nearly one-half of it during the year 1909, fifteen out of the

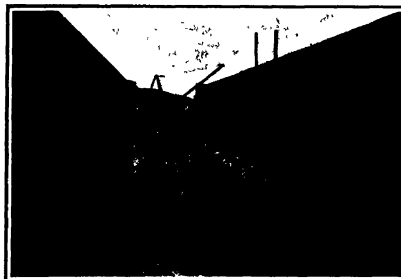
ing Lake Erie at Buffalo at an elevation of 567.6 feet above sea level the new canal follows the Niagara River to Tonawanda Creek and thence runs easterly to the Oswego River and to a junction with the Hudson River at Watford. After entering Tonawanda Creek it follows the stream to Lockport where a de-



View of lock No. 5 at Northumberland



One wall of a lock, showing massive character of the concrete masonry



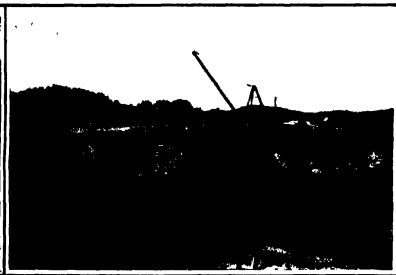
Erecting the lock gates at lock No. 11 at Comstock.



A section of the completed canal at Mills



Laying the concrete floor, lock No. 12 at Whitehall.



Another view of Comstock lock No. 11 showing retaining wall.

### RAPID PROGRESS OF THE NEW YORK STATE BARGE CANAL

year as was accomplished during the whole period of construction preceding, and the plans that were worked out to completion equal 80 per cent of the amount of similar work done in any previous two years, that is, if we consider the mileage and the size of the estimate.

On January 1st, 1910, some 314 miles of the canal, or 75 per cent of the entire work, were under contract, the remainder of the plans were nearing completion and will soon be ready for letting, and the

fifty-four locks are practically completed, and by the spring of next year the eight movable dams of the Mohawk River will be in operation. The work has now reached a stage where it is possible to predict both the time and cost of the completion of the entire project.

By studying the accompanying map, profile, and cross sections of the canal in connection with the following outline of its principal features, an adequate conception of this great work may be gathered. Leav-

ing 101 feet is made by means of two locks; thence there is a south level to Rochester. Beyond Rochester the new canal confides with the old canal until it enters the River Clyde near Lyons. Beyond Lyons the old canal route is abandoned and a new route is laid to the north of the old work. The Clyde River and the Seneca River are followed to Thixo River where the Seneca and Onondaga unite to form the Oswego River. A new stretch of canal will be formed in the bed of the river, running north to Lake Ontario, the

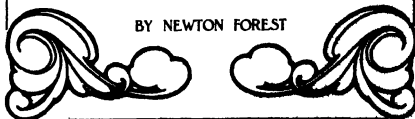






## OSTRICH FARMING AS AN INDUSTRY

BY NEWTON FOREST



Does ostrich farming pay? The question is asked by almost everyone who visits an ostrich farm. The answer is that when an acre of alfalfa will furnish a ton for four birds with food enough to maintain them throughout the year, when an ostrich will yield annually about two pounds of feathers with an average value of \$20 a pound and from thirty-six to ninety eggs which may be used for incubation or may furnish food at the rate of nearly four pounds to the egg if the owner does not wish to increase his troop ostrich farming does pay and pays well.

There is nothing very lovable about an ostrich as there usually is about other domestic animals. But however lacking in personal charm it may be, the big bird is a money producer. A head of cattle sells sixty-five pounds of alfalfa in a day, an ostrich ten pounds. This head of cattle at five years old is worth \$10 and an ostrich at that age is worth \$250. There is nothing to the cattle but meat. At ten months the ostrich will produce \$10 worth of feathers and thereafter from \$25 to \$100 worth of feathers annually for a long period of years. Though an ostrich is matured at the age of five and is reproducing its average life is about that of a human being. The bird does not begin to decline until it is fifty years old. Many how ever produce fine plumage at the age of twenty-five.

There is as much difference in the breed of ostriches as there is in any other animal. Some of the California and Arizona male birds are rated at as high as \$400 each, but ordinarily the value averages about \$100 for a one-year-old bird and about \$150 for a chick. Some of the cocks weigh as much as 700 pounds and stand over ten feet high.

It has of late years been found that a great deal of money can be made in ostrich farming. Especially so where alfalfa or lucern can be raised on irrigated lands. In the Salt River Valley in Arizona there are about 2,000 acres of rich land soon to be made richer and more productive through immense irrigation works on which the United States is spending \$8,000,000. Such a climate is an ideal one for ostrich farming as the farms in that locality have already proven by their successful operations. While the birds thrive best in a warm dry climate they can be grown in any of the southern States and Territories of this country. In a moist climate however they would have to be protected from cold and rain.

It is only a little more than two decades ago since the first ostrich here was brought into the United States with the serious purpose of attempting their culture

here. Before that time the only birds seen in this country had been introduced to America. Today at least of those in zoos there are some four thousand birds on the American continent. Probably half of this number are the progeny of a single pair owned in Arizona in 1891.

The female ostrich matures much earlier than the cock beginning to lay fertile eggs when she is about three and a half years old. The nest is made more or less than a hole scratched in the ground which is done by the male bird. At first the hen may not take to the nest but may lay her first eggs on the ground whereupon the male will roll them into the nest. Generally after the male has put three or four eggs into the nest the female will take to it. She will then lay an egg every other day until about sixteen eggs have appeared in the nest. An ostrich egg is nearly eight inches long and about six inches in diameter. It makes a good omelet and is excellent when scrambled. One egg will make as much omelet as three dozen hens eggs. A full-grown bird has been known to produce over three hundred pounds of eggs food in a year.

An annual increase of about fifty per cent of a flock is secured mainly through the use of incubators, though on every farm a few peddlars use maintained a hatch for the sole occupancy of a pair of birds. Three times a year the hen begins to lay. She does most of her setting during the daytime the male bird attending to that part of the household duties at night. He still usually goes on the nest about five o'clock in the evening and remains there until eight o'clock next morning. It is thought that the color of the sexes has something to do with developing these instincts. The male being black is not so easily seen at night and the female being drab or nearly the color of sand cannot be readily observed on the nest in daytime.

The male usually begins to lay three or four days before the hen stops laying. If the weather is cold during the laying period the male will often be found covering the eggs at intervals during the night to prevent them from becoming chilled. The birds are also very watchful in the warm season to prevent the eggs from becoming superheated by the sun. The birds do this by resting on their ankle joints and spreading their wings umbrella wise over the nest. As is usually the case with all eggs in a dry climate the shell of an ostrich egg becomes dry and hard. It is therefore very difficult for the chick to break through. When the time arrives for the liberation of the young they

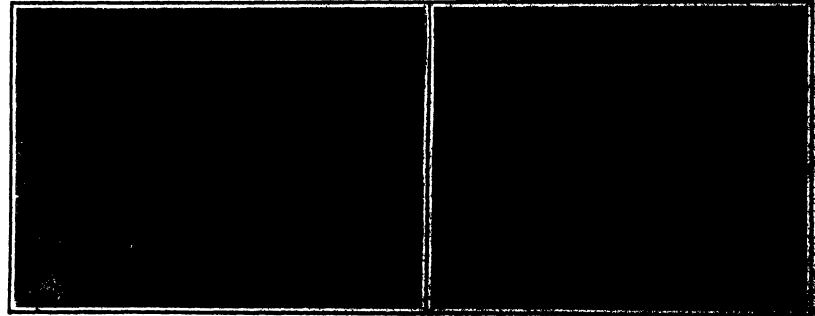
are heard to chirp and to move in the shell. The parent bird seems to understand the situation, and will often crack the shells with his beak, sometimes taking the young by the head and pulling it out of the shell. Sometimes one or two days elapse between the hatching of the first and the last egg. During this time one of the parent birds sticks to the nest while the other takes care of the chicks. However on a well regulated ostrich farm the farmer assists the birds in hatching by cracking the eggs with a small hammer and putting the unhatched eggs into an incubator.

The chicks appear to be all eyes and mouths when they first come out of the shells yet their bodies are as large as those of full-grown hens. They are so fuzzy and so soft as a day-old chicken but far more stupid. For the first week of their existence nothing but gravel is given the young ostriches. Then they are turned into small pens in the alfalfa lots where they are to eat alfalfa for the rest of their lives.

Plucking is the general term by which the harvesting of feathers is known. The term might lead one to believe that the feathers are pulled out. This is not the case however for that would injure the bird. The plumes are snipped off with shears close to the flesh. The quills that are left soon die and drop out after which new feathers begin to sprout. There are twenty-five long white plumes on each wing of the cock bird. The rest of the plumage is black on the male and of a grayish color on the female. Gathering the feathers is no easy task. This work has to be done with great care for a kick from one of the powerful legs of the bird is enough to disable a man for life or even kill him outright.

At the plucking time the birds are driven into individual plucking boxes and a loose bag slipped over their heads, which tends to keep them quiet. A cock bird will roar mournfully while being plucked although the operation is absolutely painless. After he has been stripped of his plumage he is about as ugly a sight as one could behold.

The first experiment of ostrich farming in this country was made by an Englishman who imported his birds from Africa and paid as high as \$1,200 a pair for them. As in nearly every venture of this character, the originator of the scheme did not make a fortune out of it. But the wise and daring investors who followed in his footsteps are now concentrating themselves. They are reaping the harvest he could not dream of by the starter of the industry in South



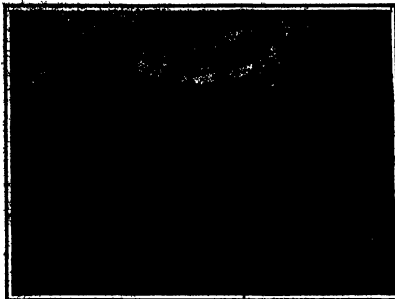
A male ostrich just hatched by an incubator.

It is a great challenge for milliners to meet the demand for high-grade feathers and it they were completely today as the demand imported from Africa. It is a great challenge for the question. But so desirable for the American ostrich-farming industry that a large part of the supply is now home product. The feathers produced in the United States are just as good in many cases much superior to those grown in Africa.

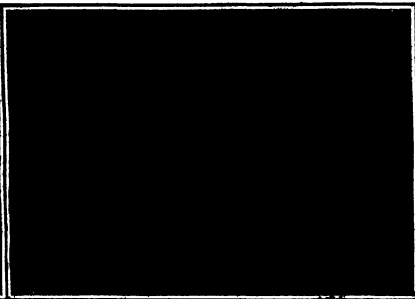
operation is done by French girls, and the skill with which this work is carried on is marvellous. To each one on a long plume is tied another in such a way that the point is invisible. Some plumes treated in this manner have been priced at \$1,000.

**Electron Metal: A New Light Weight Alloy**  
At the International Aeronautical Exposition in Frankfurt a Orlenstein firm exhibited a new and

The field of usefulness of the new material, there fore, is very extensive. Its strength and lightness make it especially valuable for the construction of airships and aeroplanes, but it may also be employed with advantage in the construction of automobiles, motors, and machines and instruments of every kind. It is so much stronger and lighter than aluminum and its alloys that 50 pounds of it may be substituted for 100 pounds of those materials. For example in a Poppin



An ostrich-down cart.



A pair of birds and their eggs

The business of ostrich farming has long become a science before it was introduced into this country. In South Africa there are all manner of laws to protect the business. There is a governmental ostrich doctor whose particular duty it is to study the diseases peculiar to such birds. There is also an ostrich breeding association where are recorded the pedigrees of the finer birds. Some of the farmers have so improved their stock that their ostrich chicks bring from \$500 to \$1,000 each and many of the most noted cock birds are priced at \$7,000.

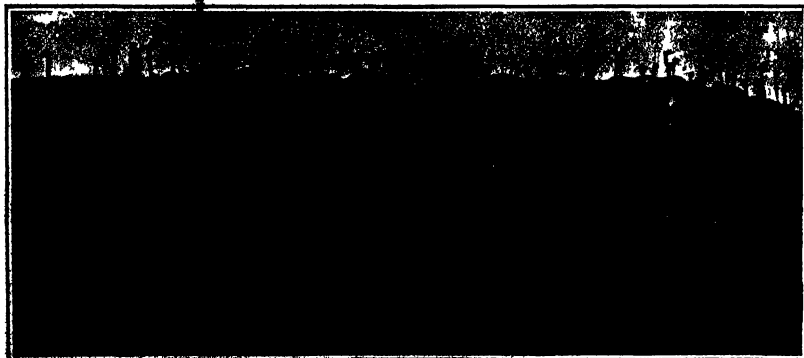
Port Elizabeth in South Africa is the chief ostrich feather port of the world. In that vicinity there are nearly a half million birds now in captivity. The feathers from these birds sell from \$15 to \$150 a pound and the industry of this one port alone amounts to some \$15,000,000 a year.

There are some districts that produce better feathers than others. The Outshoorn feather reaches twenty

patented alloy or series of alloys under the name electron metal. These alloys possess great strength united to exceedingly low specific gravity and hence appear to be the material of the future for various structural purposes. Aluminum and its alloys the lightest metals now used in practice, are 5 to 7 per cent heavier than electron metal and far inferior to it in strength and tenacity. The new alloys are composed chiefly of magnesium the rather inferior structural qualities of which metal have been very greatly improved by additions of various other metals. The alloys vary in specific gravity from 1.75 to 2.0, possess great strength tenacity and elasticity and are easily worked. They have a clear metallic ring and when polished, a beautiful silvery luster. Their resistance to atmospheric influences satisfies every practical requirement, as they become covered with a protective film of oxide when exposed to the air. Even in the form of castings they show a tensile strength up to

airship having an aluminum frame weighing 13,000 pounds 5,000 pounds weight could be saved without any reduction of strength by the substitution of electron metal. It would then be possible to carry more fuel and ballast increasing the radius of action more passengers or larger and more powerful motors. It may even be found possible to diminish the dimensions of the airship and the cost of operating it by an extensive employment of the new material. Similar advantages may be expected in automobile construction. A large automobile motor for example contains about 450 pounds of aluminum which could be replaced by 225 pounds of electron metal. At the exposition the new material was shown both cast and wrought into a great variety of forms.—Ums haui

The consumption of pulp wood during 1906 by 261 pulp mills in the United States amounted according to a preliminary report of the Bureau of the Census



The value of the 110 birds in this picture is at least \$55,000.

#### OSTRICH FARMING AS AN INDUSTRY

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The field of usefulness of the new material, there fore, is very extensive. Its strength and lightness make it especially valuable for the construction of airships and aeroplanes, but it may also be employed with advantage in the construction of automobiles, motors, and machines and instruments of every kind. It is so much stronger and lighter than aluminum and its alloys that 50 pounds of it may be substituted for 100 pounds of those materials. For example in a Poppin

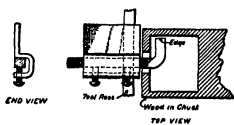






### TOOL-HOLDING DEVICE FOR WOOD TURNING

Those who use a wood lathe find frequent occasion to make special tools for difficult or unusual work, and when the tool is so shaped that the cutting edge is at right angles to the shank, great annoyance is experienced in holding the tool to the work, and keeping it from turning in the hand. Recently I had



TOOL-HOLDING DEVICE FOR WOOD TURNING

a piece of work similar to that shown in the drawing and after many experiments had failed to give complete satisfaction I developed the device illustrated. It is made of heavy ash or steel (the heaviest I could work readily) and provided with two set-screws, as shown, to allow it to be moved along the chisel as desired, and for the insertion of new chisels. As illustrated, the flat portion fits on the tool rest, and this absolutely prevents the turning of the tool. By its use I was able to reach with ease the most inaccessible corners.

### ELECTRIC INCUBATORS AND BROODERS

BY FRANKLIN S. WARD

The advantages of an electrically heated incubator over those making use of kerosene lamps and the like are no great, that as rapidly as cheap reliable power service becomes extended throughout the country, the hatching of eggs by electricity bids fair to displace all other methods.

An electric incubator can be built at home by anybody who can make a wooden box and connect up ordinary incandescent lamps. Such a machine has not only the merit of being low in first cost, but of having nothing about it to wear out, and of being capable of giving perfect results with very little attention on the part of the operator.

The photographs show the first incubator built by the author, while the drawings give details of construction drawn to scale, for a similar machine of fifty eggs capacity. Briefly, it consists of an outer and an inner wooden box, leaving the space between them packed with wool or other heat-retaining material. The eggs are placed in the inner box, which is covered by an incandescent lamp controlled by a thermostat.

The boxes should be made of well-seasoned lumber about  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch thick. Old soap boxes furnish good material for the purpose. For a fifty-egg machine the inner box needs to be 11 inches wide, 17 inches long, and 11 inches deep, all inside measurements. This box is to be left without any top or bottom except a slatted bottom which is to be put in half an inch from the bottom of the box into an upper and a lower compartment of equal depth. On top of the slats a double thickness of woolen blanket should be tacked, to support the eggs, as shown in Fig. 1.

Eight electric lamps are required for the heating units. These are best mounted in porcelain receptacles as shown, four lamps in each compartment near its top. For fifteen circuits use ordinary incandescent power carbon filament lamps made for 250 volts, and connect them as shown in the diagram, where  $H$  is a 100-watt regulator, or thermostat, and  $R$  and  $S$  are snap switches to be placed on the outside, as shown in one of the photographs.

It is hardly worth while to make a thermostat at home when one suitable for the purpose can be bought from a dealer in electrical supplies for about seventy-five cents, but it is not a difficult job for anybody who takes pleasure in doing such work. Fig. 2 shows a simple form of thermostat attached directly to the inside of the egg chamber. The essential part consists of two strips of metal riveted together as shown in the top view at A. Zinc and steel (or iron) make the most effective combination, brass and steel (or iron) come next. The strips should be about  $1/32$  inch thick, 8 inches long, 1 inch wide at the large end and  $5/16$  inch wide at the narrow end. They may be fastened together with fifteen or twenty small rivets, or by soldering them all around the edges. The two metals thus joined tend to curl and uncurl with changes in temperature, by reason of their different rates of expansion. The large end should be clamped to a block B, as shown, and a contact screw should be provided at C, with a stiff wire, D, attached to serve as a screwdriver for adjustment from the outside. It is highly important that the tip of the screw C and the spot on the zinc (or brass) strip be protected by pieces of platinum soldered on, or the electric arc which forms between them will soon destroy them. If the thermostat be purchased as advised, it must be mounted in such a position that the adjusting screw can be reached by a screwdriver or wire passing in from the outside through small holes in the box.

The inner and outer boxes are to be joined at the bottom by a passageway or tunnel three inches high, forming a doorway through which chicks may enter the brooding compartment under the egg chamber. The inner and outer boxes are to be joined near the top by three or four half-inch tubes for ventilation as shown at V, Fig. 2.

The top of the egg chamber is best covered over with a pane of glass, on top of which is laid a small pillow or several thicknesses of folded blanket.

Next in importance to the thermostat comes the choice of a thermometer and its proper location in

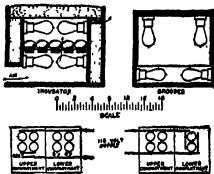


FIG. 1.—CONSTRUCTION DETAILS AND WIRING DIAGRAM OF THE INCUBATOR AND BROODER.

the egg chamber, where the bulb should occupy a central position rather than one near a corner. It is not necessary to buy an expensive instrument in order to get accuracy, an ordinary ten-cent thermometer can be made to serve the purpose very well provided that its scale be properly corrected or "calibrated." This may be easily accomplished by taking advantage of the fact that the internal temperature of a normal, healthy person is just a trifle over 98 deg. F. Tie a thread around the tube at the place marked 98 deg. on the scale, and remove the tube from the scale, in which it is usually attached by two bits of wire. Place

slight kinks in one, the apparatus so described is capable of maintaining a temperature of 104 deg. in the egg chamber when the room temperature is only 60 deg. If used in a warmer room, one pair of the lamps in the lower compartment may be turned off by means of the snap switch.

Each pair of 250-volt 15-watt-power carbon lamps, connected in series as shown, will, when used on a 110-volt circuit, burn with a full red glow markedly visible in daylight, and with a power consumption of 316 watts. A fifty-egg machine operated in a room where the temperature is 60 deg. consumes about 16 watts, making a total for 25 days of about 8 kilowatt hours, which, where the rate is 18 cents, costs 90 cents. This cost looks high at first sight, but it is materially less than that of a kerosene-burning machine if one stops to consider the saving in interest on first investment,

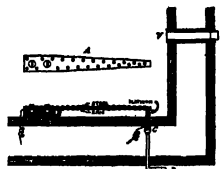


FIG. 2.—METHOD OF APPLYING THE THERMOSTAT.

the saving in oil, the absence of depreciation and repair bills, and the saving in labor of attendance.

In the practical operation of the incubator, the following points should be borne in mind:

The eggs need to be turned partly every day. A good way to do this is to take out the row of five eggs at the left hand end, roll the remaining ones toward the left, and replace the five at the right-hand end. This progressive movement serves also to even up the different times of hatching that might result from some eggs remaining in warmer spots than others.

Increasing ventilation is required as incubation progresses. Practically no air is needed the first two weeks, and all ventilating tubes and the door to the lower compartment may be kept closed with considerable economy in power. During the third week, and especially when the hatch is due, plenty of air must be allowed to filter up through the eggs, as shown by the arrows in Fig. 1.

No moisture is required during the first week. Thereafter it is best to keep a small pan of water in the lower compartment and a small glassful in the egg chamber. These serve to prevent excessive evaporation of the eggs by too dry air.

The newly hatched chicks should not be taken out or fed until they are 24 hours old. After this they may be kept in the lower compartment for a time, provided all four lamps be kept burning. As soon as convenient, however, they should be transferred to an electric brooder, two forms of which will now be described.

The first and simpler form, suitable for use only in a well warmed room, is shown in one of the photographs. It consists of a small wooden table carrying on its under side four lamps, and surrounded by a fringe made by slitting a piece of old blanket. For use on the ground or over the floor the four-lamp bottom heat must be provided as shown in Fig. 1. Forty chicks can be accommodated by such a brooder, having the following dimensions:

Top, 14 by 36 inches, supported by legs 8 inches long. Bottom box of wood, 14 by 36 inches outside, 8 inches deep inside. Base-cover of tin 14 by 36 inches, protected on top by a sheet of paper and a

sprinkling of sand. Four lamps are required in the upper part, one near each corner, and two in the bottom heater. It will be observed in the diagram of connections that the latter lamps are connected in parallel and the former in series, thus tending to burn more brightly. The power consumption is 24 watts, or about twice what is required for hatching. No thermostat or thermometer is needed for the brooder. It will not get too warm if the current is left on all the time.

Where any form of brooder is used all that is described, is used it is to be placed in a room where the temperature is 60 deg. or below, and the

THE BROODER WITHOUT BOTTOM HEATER.

INCUBATOR WITH BROODING COMPARTMENT OPEN.

PLAN VIEW WITH COVER REMOVED.

the bulb under the tongue at the side of the mouth and hold it until the mercury column does not rise any higher. By observing with a mirror it will then be possible to determine quite accurately how much to error the marking on the scale may be, and due allowance for this can then be made by assuming that the same error is present at the 104-deg. mark, which is the temperature of incubation.

The machine must be run a few days before any eggs are put in, to give time for carefully adjusting the thermostat. When the latter is once set right it is not necessary to touch the heat at the desired point by "winking" the lamps on and off. With all



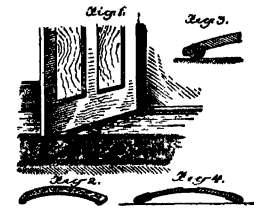
If which the chokes may get up on the raised platform.  
The following bill gives a list of all materials needed and their present retail prices.

For the Incubator.	
2 220-volt 15-candle-power carbon lamps	\$1.50
6 porcelain receptacles	.48
1 thermostat	.75
1 thermometer	.10
2 single-pole snap switches	.30
1 piece 12 x 18 window glass	.30
Lumber, etc.	.15
Total	\$2.58
For the Brooder.	
2 220-volt 15-candle-power carbon lamps	\$1.50
6 porcelain receptacles	.48
1 sheet 14 x 20 tin	.15
Lumber, etc.	.05
Total	\$1.78

The foregoing bill does not include the shaded lamp and fixtures shown on the outside of the incubator in Figs. 1 and 2. An ordinary 4-candle-power lamp so mounted is a convenience, but not in any way essential.

#### CONVENIENT DOOR HOLDER.

A convenient door holder may be made from a barrel hoop, as shown in the accompanying illustration, by cutting a piece about eight inches long and inserting a rubber-band latch (such as used in the plumbing trade) at each end, on the under side, as shown in Fig. 3. Two such latches are also placed on upper face, spaced apart sufficiently to allow the bottom of the hoop will give sufficient friction between the door and floor to hold the door in any desired position. If rubber-band latches are not available the ends may be covered with some soft material such as carpet and latched thereto. In place of latches, a notch may be cut in the barrel hoop equal to the thickness of the door, as shown in Fig. 4 of the illustration. The



ROCK-BALE DOOR-RETAINING DEVICE.

center of a barrel stave may be used instead of a hoop by cutting it to about the same width as the hoop

#### BORING HOLES IN GLASS.

Glass is universally conceded to be exceedingly difficult to work when cold, yet its fragile nature often calls for means of repair. It is also desirable sometimes to drill large holes in glass plates, or through a glass column, which is not an easy thing to do with any facilities hitherto developed for such work.

It is well known that turpentine applied to a small drill will enable one to drill through a piece of glass by persistent application and frequent grindings of the drill. This hole will often taper from a larger diameter at the top to a smaller one at the bottom, and besides it is quite impossible to drill two holes of the same size with the same drill. Instrument work of certain classes would be made better also if it were possible to tap threads in the glass of which the base or other parts are composed. In the opinion of the writer the best said to be applied to the glass so that the tool will take hold is that of the formula given below. It has been developed after many experiments with different mixtures, and will be found to be superior to anything heretofore known. With a heated file wet with it, a piece of plate glass may be put into a vise and filed like wood; any other cut of file may be used, but there is much glass to remove, the danger the file the bottom.

For drilling small holes, a brass tube of the diameter of the hole wanted is better than a drill. The tube, heated in water enough so the end there is in contact with the glass, is wetted with the glass-cutting mixture, or what is better, diamond dust. By rotating the hole is given of wood having a hole drilled in it of the size of the desired hole. The tube is then moved up and down until the hole is made and the tube is then moved up and down until the hole is made and the tube is then moved up and down until the hole is made.

made in the side of the tube by filing into it with a round file, and it may be turned either by a drill press or by one of the small, geared, hand drills used for small drills. With a small brush dipped into the solution as heretofore given wipe the hole so that a little of the mixture will run down inside the tube, and onto the glass where the hole is being made, and the tube will be found to enter the glass with surprising ease.

If it is desired to have the edge of the hole sharp where the tube comes through, cement a small piece of

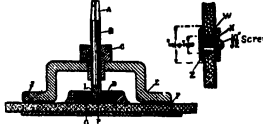


Fig. 1—APPARATUS FOR BORING LARGE HOLES IN GLASS. Fig. 2—METHOD OF REPAIRING CRACKED PLATE GLASS.

glass to the under side of the plate being bored, and when the tube is through, continue the boring until it has entered the lower plate slightly. Glass cut with the diamond, which often cuts unevenly, and fail to fit a window sash, circles cut out for the state of instruments of the clock class, circles for static electric machines, glass covers for galvanometers, ammeters, and many other instruments are often thrown away, when a touch with a file wet with this solution would save them. It is especially recommended to glassmen to remove the sharp edges of the glass cut with the diamond, which often cuts the hands. For boring large holes in plate glass the jig shown in the sectional view, Fig. 1, is very handy, in fact almost essential if correct results are required. It can be easily modified to hold the cutter for boring circular work, such as glass columns or cone bases, where circumstances require such variation. The frame is an iron casting having feet *F*, and is bored out to receive a steel bushing *C*, which may be hardened after a central hole is made to receive the shaft *H* of the cutter bar. The top of the cutter bar or shaft is squared at *A* so that a bit stock may hold it, or it may be held by the chuck of a drill press. The bottom has a flange and a pilot *L*, which fits in the hole of a small ordinary wheel *G* of the kind used by toolmakers on universal grinding machines for lapping out small holes.

The lead bushing in the wheel should be cut out on the side that is to do the boring, and the pilot *L* must not go entirely through the wheel, but cut at least  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an inch short of the wheel thickness. The wheel may now be cemented to the cutter shaft by heating it, and also the wheel slightly, so as to melt some gun shells, which has been sprinkled on the top side of the wheel. After it is cold mix up a stiff paste of lead and glue and some of about the same grade as the wheel, and fill the bottom of the hole *P* even with the wheel. In drying it will shrink slightly and the paste may be applied again, until the surface is flush with the side of the wheel.

The feet *F* of the frame have thin rubber *R* (known in the stores as "rubber dam") cemented to their under side with Mergle tree cement, so that when placed on the glass the jig will not slip around. The place where the hole is to be made having been ascertained, a ring of putty *D* is stuck to the glass to form a seal, and after the wheel shaft is inserted in the bushing, the apparatus is placed with the feet of the wheel over the spot to be bored, with the foot *F* resting on the glass. Before beginning operations a piece of double-clip window glass *H* is cemented with French copal varnish to the under side of the plate to be bored.

The formula for the fluid to be applied to the tools is as follows:  
Pulverized camphor . . . . . on 10  
Sulphuric ether . . . . . do 10  
Enough oil turpentine to make a six-ounce bottle full  
After the bit stock to the shaft *H* of the shaft, then  
pour enough of the fluid into the putty cup to cover  
the lower side of the wheel *G*.

When the wheel is turned it will immediately enter the glass, boring a very smooth and true hole. If a drill press is used, the speed should be slow to avoid throwing the fluid out of the top or heating the wheel, the last being especially avoided, as all of the constituents of the fluid are very volatile, and it will evaporate quickly if much heat is present.

When the hole is nearly through moderate the pressure, but keep on drilling until the wheel has entered the plate *H* slightly. A slight tap with a hammer will now knock the window glass off, and the wheel and shaft may be removed. Do not attempt to remove it through the top unless the hole is very clean, or you will pull the wheel off the arbor.

Fig. 2 shows how a cracked plate-glass window may be repaired. At the ends of each crack and where they intersect a hole is bored to receive a bolt. The nut *Z* of the bolt is made thin, and a rubber washer, made of engine packing is held against the glass by a washer and screw. The dimensions given are those used some time ago in repairing a store window. The heads of the screws were located inside the store, so as to make it impossible to remove them from the outside. The window is still doing service.

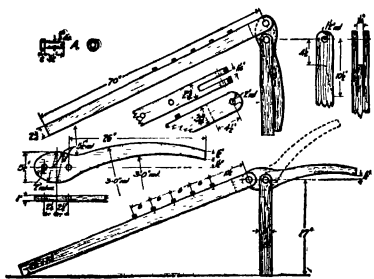
#### A WAGON JACK.

BY L. O. BAYLEY.

For oiling wagon wheels, or taking them off, some kind of lifting arrangement is resorted to. For simplicity of construction and effectiveness the jack here-with described is unique. The whole, including the posts or pins *A*, is made of cast iron, the best tough white oak being recommended.

The beam is made from  $\frac{3}{4}$  by 4-inch timber, planed down to the dimensions given. An eye or slot is cut out at the wide end 1 1/16 in. wide by 4 1/2 inches deep. This end is rounded off to a radius of 2 inches. Five pins, 1 inch diameter by 2 inches in length, are driven into the upper side. The holes are 1 inch deep and should allow the pins to have a driving fit.

The upright *B* is 7 inches high to the center of the



A WAGON JACK.

fairlead, made from 3 by 4-inch stuff. The end is rounded off to a radius of 1 1/2 inches, and a slotted hole is cut in, an individual to the detail view.

The lever is cut from 1-inch board, 6 inches wide by about 33 or 34 inches in length. It should be laid out accurately to the dimensions given in the larger side view. When correct it is made and the slot in the upright cut likewise the two holes for the pins *A* will be in a vertical line, when the lever is pressed down, as shown in the upper general view. The pins *A* should have a loose fit, and be furnished with small wooden pegs or nails, to keep them in place, when the parts are assembled.

To operate the jack the lever is raised as shown in dotted lines in the lower general sketch and the beam slipped in place under the axle of the wagon, which should rest between one of the small pins in the upper face. Bearing on the lever, it is pressed down into its lowest position, as shown in the upper sketch, raising the wagon wheel from the ground and securing it in that position indefinitely, without the least chance of its slipping back.

Swelling ground may be held by timber, means must be provided for relieving the pressure of the ground from time to time. It will cause little trouble if spacers are left between the lagging, through which the pressure may be eased at intervals by removing some of the material. Expedients such as packing with straw are valuable only until the swelling becomes sufficient to pack tightly the cushions underneath. When this becomes packed solidly it transmits the pressure to the timbers.



NEW BOOKS, ETC.

**THE HISTORY OF FRENCH LITERATURE FROM THE DAYS OF ST. GERMAIN TO CHATELAIN.** By ALFRED L. KOSTER. New York and London: D. Appleton & Co., 1910. 1vo., 350 pp., \$3.50.

As a general rule, an author divides the progress of his work into two categories, and a book is usually divided into these divisions in view of it is intended for the general reader of the student, or for the manual reader, and seldom answers the purpose of both. Mrs. Koster, however, has furnished us with an exception in this progressive time, in her excellent history of French literature, and the lay reader will find much of interest and of high literary value in her book. The work is a complete and clear chronology of practically the whole of French literature, beginning with the formative period. The history is both scholarly and thorough, and systematic, and that it is the result of long continued, consecutive study and investigation, thus becomes apparent to even the most ordinary reader. It is a carefully directed to treat a subject of such comprehensive nature, so that its necessary brevity does no violence to the mass of information which must be included but the author appears to have solved this problem successfully. The appended bibliography is excellent. Another good feature is found in the thorough index, an element so necessary in a book of this kind and so seldom properly done. Added from any pedagogical point, the book is of great interest owing to the many interesting and amusing anecdotes and stories, which the author has culled from French sources, regarding many of the prominent figures of French literature. Many of the anecdotes have been discovered in obscure French sources, and appear for the first time in English in Mrs. Koster's book.

**THE HISTORY OF ASTRONOMY.** By GEORGE FURBER M. A. F. R. S. M. I. C. New York and London: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1909. 16mo., 350 pp., \$2.50.

Prof. Furber has written a very instructive little book on the history of astronomy which he divides into four periods: the prehistoric, the classical, the medieval, and the modern. The book traces the evolution of intelligent thought in the progress of astronomical discovery and by recognizing the different points of view of the different ages, the reader is enabled to appreciate the contributions of the ancients. Although the history has been necessarily curtailed, still it lays before the reader in a limited space just enough work to illustrate the time and spirit to give some conception of the progress of astronomy to present logically and gradually different and new points of view and additional means of investigation.

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INDEX OF INVENTIONS

For which Letters Patent of the United States were issued for the Week Ending

February 23, 1910.

AND EACH BEARING THAT DATE

(See note at end of list shows copies of these patents.)

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Alarm clock, J. A. Douglas	200,796
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# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

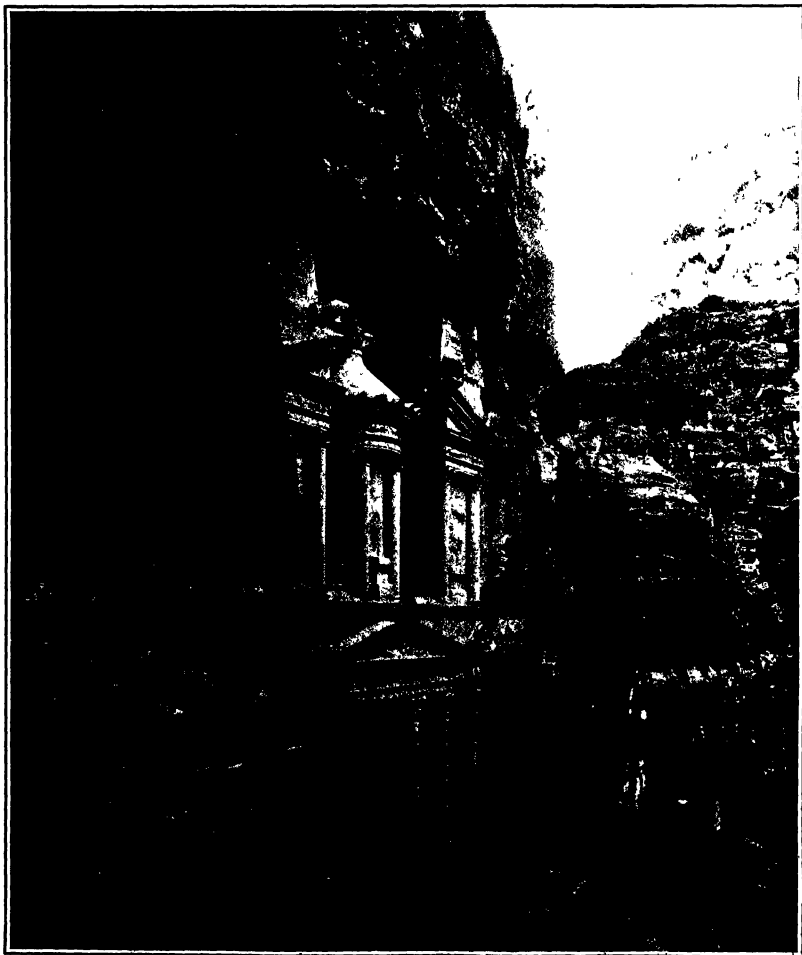
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A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS

Vol. 418—No. 11.

NEW YORK, MARCH 12, 1910

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El Khazneh el Faroun (the treasury of Pharaoh) Petra.

This is in some respects the most remarkable of the beautiful temples and tombs of Petra, the rock-hewn capital of Edom, and later of the Nabataeans, whose king, Aretas, mentioned in 24 or 33 A. D., expelled the conquerors of the Romans. This monument of antiquity is thought to be the work of the Romans, being attributed by some to the Emperor Hadrian who visited the place in A. D. 130. The relief of the entrance is a fine work of art. The imposing facade shows two rows of six majestic columns. It terminates in a subsidiary temple crowned by a loggia and to the right of which this vast monolith was cut in a delicate rose pink. The angle at which the photograph was taken will show how the temple was cut from the rock.

A CITY Hewn OUT OF SOLID ROCK.—[See page 220.]



# ENGINEERING.

A recent wreck on the London & Brighton Railway, England, when an express left the rails and crashed into the railway station, has caused the light construction of English cars. A Pullman car was comparatively little damaged, whereas the ordinary day coaches were completely wrecked.

The new single-phase electric freight locomotive which has been built for the New Haven Railroad was recently given a test between New Rochelle and Stamford, a distance of 17 miles. The load consisted of thirty loaded freight cars, and the distance of 17 miles was covered in 27 minutes without pushing the engine to its full capacity.

In a paper before the Engineers' Society of West Virginia, E. F. Bulmash described a new type of bituminous gas producer which embodies the good features both of the up-draft and the down-draft type, overcoming the production of tar and completely consuming the fixed carbon. There are two fuel beds, one operated as a down-draft producer to break up the volatile matter, the other as an up-draft producer to consume the fixed carbon, the resultant gas being taken off at the center of the producer.

Time was when it took nearly six years to build a lighthouse in private yards in the United States, but the construction of the "Connecticut" at the government yard at Brooklyn set a pace which has steadily accelerated. The "Mississippi," whose trials took place as recently as October, 1907, took 44 months to construct. The "Albatross," in 27 months, 1907, was built in 28 months, the "North Carolina" (crusier), January, 1908, in 18 months, the "Michigan" (battleship), 1908, in 24 months, the "Delaware" (battleship), October, 1909, in 27 months.

Fast improvements are being made in the Trans-Britannia Railway which, in addition to being double-tracked, is being largely realigned with a view to the elimination of grades and the shortening of the distance. When the work has been completed the distance from Paris to Peking will be 6,200 miles instead of 7,600 miles over the present line via Harbin and Mukden, and the fourteen days now consumed on the trip will be reduced to eight days. The value of these improvements will be as great from the military point of view as they will from that of the traveler and freight.

Speaking on the relative economy of the single-phase and direct-current systems for steam railroads, Mr. George Gibbs is of the opinion that maintenance costs of the single-phase system as at present developed will be somewhat higher than direct current, but though eventually they should be about the same. On the other hand, he estimates that about 15 per cent less energy would be required at the power house for the single-phase than for the direct-current system. Adding the saving in substation operation, he looks for a saving of from 4 to 5 per cent in the total operating cost in favor of the single-phase system.

The tremendous floods of the past season on the Isthmus of Panama have helped to demonstrate, even before completion, the wisdom of building a high-level rather than a sea-level canal. Through the swamp near Gatun the bottom of a sea-level canal would be some 50 feet below the general ground level, and at Gamboa, where the Chagres River pours its enormous and sudden floods across the canal cut, the river bed would be 90 feet above the level of the sea. Under the present plan, the discharge of alluvial material into the canal would make necessary constant dredging, and might result in the temporary obstruction of the channel.

There is great activity just now in experimental work in the direction of speed-reducing gear for marine turbines. We noted in our issue of February 13th that the Melville-McAlpine mechanical gear has shown a high efficiency of 88.5 per cent. The Parsons Marine Steam Turbine Company have installed a helical reduction gear on the 1,600-hp steamship "Tropican," with which they claim to have obtained a high efficiency of 90 per cent. The Parsons hydraulic reduction gear has shown a high efficiency of 90 per cent. This last-named gear, however, is said to have the great advantage of being completely reversible.

Prof. O. Paul Mendenhall, of the University of California, has given a preliminary description of an experiment on the behavior of a foot deep, carried on a sled, at a height of 90 feet from the ground, which has been built to test a hypothesis that a sled of this kind will be able to carry a load of 10,000 tons. The test was made on the water about 10,000 tons. The supporting structure was in groups of four, spaced 100 feet apart, and a hypothesis that the sled would be able to carry a load of 10,000 tons was made. The sled was 100 feet long.

# AERONAUTICS.

The latest German airship—"Parasol V"—left Bitterfeld at 10 A. M. March 10 on a voyage to Berlin. The capital city was reached before the sun had been covered in 4 hours. This airship is the smallest, non-rigid passenger-carrying dirigible yet constructed. Its length is but 30 meters (100 feet).

With the same make of 50-horse-power revolving cylinder motor used by the latest Delagrange, and which drove his machine at the rate of 50 miles an hour, he flew 10 kilometers (6.2 miles) at 17 1/2 (45.8 miles per hour) and Pulaas 5 kilometers (3.1 miles) in 4 1/2 (48.9 miles per hour) at the first foreign aviation meet of the year at Heliopolis, near Cairo, Egypt. Both were awarded prizes.

The 1910 model Blériot monoplane has a body only 6.5 meters (21 1/2 feet) in length. The body is completely covered. There are wide horizontal fins on each side at the rear, forming a tail, and the horizontal rudder is in two parts, one of which is hinged to the rear edge of each fin. The tail resembles that of the Antoinette monoplane, but Blériot still uses a rectangular laceration body instead of the V-shaped form which imparts to the Antoinette machine its excellent transverse stability.

The recent decision of Judge Hand against Paulhan in the Wright brothers' suit, the granting of a preliminary injunction, and the requirement of a \$25,000 bond for one month in case Paulhan wished to continue his flights, has put a sudden end to the line of exhibition flights in America by this daring Frenchman. The bond was reduced to \$12,000, but Paulhan's manager, although under contract to pay him \$5,000 per week, has brought the aviator to New York to await the result of an appeal. The case will be reopened on the 12th instant.

Gen. Brun, the French Minister of War, a month ago inspected at Villacoublay the four Wright biplanes which have been built for the French army. Count Lambert explained the mechanism but made no trial flight because of an extremely high wind. At the same time the army Antoinette and Farman machines were inspected at Mourmelon by an artillery officer, Commandant Bellange. On the 3rd instant Van den Horn made a 30-minute flight in one of the Farman biplanes, carrying a useful load of 201 kilograms (444 pounds). On March 3 Lieut. Commandant de la Bégue, near Corps 38 miles in a similar machine. Blériot also has been instructing Lieut. Aquaviva with success.

A man who has made a thorough investigation of the accident to the Blériot monoplane which cost the life of Louis Delagrange, has concluded that the accident was the result of the aviator getting "tired" for an instant when he was flying low and was about to turn. It is this man's belief that Delagrange threw his control lever too far to the right, thus warping the wings too much and tipping the machine severely, and then too late to the other result being that the machine swayed so violently that it turned over. It struck the ground upside down, and all the gure air on the under side were found intact. A spring strut between the wings (which the constructor claimed had been left out) was found in place and unbroken. As far as could be ascertained, everything was in good order and the accident was not due to the failure or breakage of any part of the mechanism.

Now that Germany has produced several "men birds" many more airplane inventors are rapidly appearing. The Wright brothers' monoplane, which type the first \$10,000 cash prize (the Lang prize) was won by Herr Grasse, Ltd. Dornier and Hildebrand are two of the latest successful experimenters with this type. On March 10th when should be added Major von Parvanel, who has a 16-horse (40 foot) monoplane fitted with a 110-horse-power motor. This machine is undergoing its preliminary tests on the lake of Zurich. Plans for March 12th were made at Dresden. He rose to a height of 40 feet, when a violent wind gust captured the machine, which fell and was badly demolished. The aviator escaped with bad bruises.

The making and flying of model aeroplanes is a scientific diversion from which much may be learned. Several interesting new forms of aeroplanes have been developed from models, and many scientists have learned the behavior in flight of the various types of machines. Hence the first national contest of the Aeromobile Society for the Champs and other prizes, which was held in the 45th Regiment Armory, New York city, on the evening of March 3rd, was largely attended. Several small aeroplanes having plans made of wood were flown by L. L. Lock. Mr. Paulhan had a Leandry-type machine with a large set of propellers, one at either corner. The models were launched from a table. The longest flight—148 feet—was made by the monoplane of Frederick Weston, a 15-year-old boy. Other contests will be held weekly at the society.

# SCIENCE.

Prof. Marshall C. Parker of Columbia University announces his intention of attempting to ascend the Alaskan peak of Mount McKinley. He states that either he will reach the summit or prove that it can be reached only by an aeroplane.

The alcohol produced from sawdust and wood must not be confused with wood alcohol, for, although standard alcohol is produced from wood, it is produced directly by the fermentation of a pure sugar solution, into which the wood is first converted, and it is the same, both chemically and physically, as the alcohol made from grain.

Kand. Rasmussen, the explorer, will sail in June for Greenland on an expedition which will consume four years. The ethnographic study of the Eskimos is the purpose of this expedition. One year will be spent at Cape York and a year each at Hudson's Bay and Crown Bay. After the navigation of Haffin's Bay Rasmussen is expected to circumnavigate Alaska and to sail to the Alaskan islands and return via San Francisco.

Sir Ernest H. Shackleton, the Antarctic explorer, who is to lecture in this country, will arrive on the Lusitania on March 25th. Before the explorer leaves Washington, where he will be the guest of Ambassador Bryce, he will receive from President Taft the gold medal of the National Geographic Society. While in New York he will be presented with the gold medal of the American Geographical Society of New York.

Prof. M. B. Barnard of Yverkes Observatory informs us that on February 10th, 1916, he secured a one-hour exposure a photograph of Halley's comet, showing a faint tail of two degrees, equivalent to a length of about fourteen million miles. This is rather important in relation to the question as to whether the tail will reach the earth on May 18th from these photographs taken so far from perihelion, it seems that the tail will be amply long enough to reach the earth.

The Royal Geographical Society of Italy, at a largely attended meeting, ratified the recommendations of the committee relating to the bestowal of medals and other distinctions for the year 1915. It awarded the gold medal to Robert E. Peary for the discovery of the North Pole, silver medal to Captain Robert A. Bartlett, who commanded the steamship "Roosevelt" on the Peary expedition, and gold medal to Lieut. Ernest H. Shackleton, for his "Inexpressible" silver tablet to the Duke of the Abruzzi for his expedition to the Himalayas where he made a record ascent.

The moving pictures are now applied to educational purposes. Chemical tests are now exhibited on the screen. There are films illustrating the electrolysis of water, action of acids on metals, and action of acids on aqua regia on metallic gold ore. The test tube is thrown on the screen many times enlarged, and the chemical action is clearly illustrated. Most unsavory but educational is a film illustrating the peril of the fly. The flies are shown laying eggs in unsavory places and before the eyes of the spectators the eggs develop in heaps of wriggling maggots. In the final stage the stinger fly is shown in all its unsavory array. Still another film exhibits the arachnid fly lying on its back jostling various articles with its feet, and even availing a dumb-bell as large as the insect itself.

In the possession of Knox Hall of Natural History with its invaluable specimens Hamilton College is especially fortunate. By the kindness of the Hon James Knox, D. D., the original building was recently altered into a hall suited to the display of all types of natural history specimens. The most important collection on exhibit is that of the New York State minerals, beginning with the Silurian and extending to the present day. Among these specimens are found many of the best of their kind in science. In addition to these minerals are 4,000 specimens of fossils and rocks to illustrate the geology of New York, 3,750 specimens to illustrate the geology of the United States, 500 fossils, mainly from the Silurian formation of Europe. Several thousand valuable specimens in paleontology, 10,000 specimens in mineralogy, 10,000 specimens in ornithology, supplemented by a fine array of specimens in entomology and a large and valuable collection of 2,000 specimens of Japanese shells and insects. A large and useful exhibition of the North American flora, the result of 30 years of botanical study, search, and correspondence with a large and valuable collection of 2,000 specimens, appropriately mounted. The Hall of Natural History is under the charge of Prof. William John Miller, Ph.D., an eminent authority on geology and mineralogy. Dr. Miller has been assisted by a large number of the American Quadrangle, including Trevor Palle and the vicinity in Onondaga and Herkimer counties. This book was published by the University of the State of New York as Bulletin No. 126 of the Education Department.

# DRIVING PILES WITHOUT A PILE DRIVER

BY GEORGE H. LODGE

It may be of interest to many of the readers of the *Scientific American* to learn of an easy method of driving piles through the ice without the use of a pile driver.

Those who have tried to drive even a small post by hand while wading in water or from a small boat have found it much more difficult than one would at first suppose. I was myself confronted with the problem of building a dock landing for a lake steamboat, a steamboat built to carry 300 passengers, being 70 feet long. The problem was to build a dock or landing safe and large enough to handle the people rapidly.

First we thought that it would be necessary to hire a pile-driving outfit, but my father, R. H. Lodge, devised a plan that works to perfection.

We used straight white oak piles not over one foot in diameter at the butt which are cut to the length required usually from 30 to 35 feet. These are sharpened at the butt ends to a point and with an ax a thread is cut from the point of the stick back from three to four and one-half feet, according to the size of the pile.

It is important that the threads be cut as nearly the same distance apart as possible. A good man with an ax can saw out threads that are mechanical. It is astonishing how many, with a little practice, can be cut in a day. It pays to use special care in the cutting, as it helps wonderfully in the driving. Piles that are from ten to twelve inches in diameter should have threads from three to three and one-half inches apart and two to two and one-half inches deep.

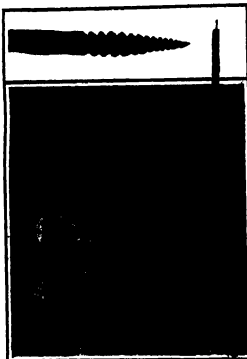
After the threads are cut the pole is ready to drive, which is done by chopping a hole through the ice at the desired spot, being careful not to make the hole over two inches larger in diameter than the pole, and have the ice cut as close to keep the pole upright while sawing it down.

If the pole is long and heavy, it is necessary to fasten three guy ropes to the top of it before raising. The pole is raised, it is an easy matter to keep it plumb by pulling the ropes.

The pile is raised like a common telephone pole. In other words, a little at a time with pile poles, follow

ing up under with two planks spiked together in the form of an X.

It is a good plan to stand a plank in the hole and to let the point of the pile rest against it, as it assists in placing the pile in the desired spot.



DRIVING PILES WITHOUT A PILE DRIVER.

It is also a great help to spike a short plank across the pile, temporarily, just above the threads, to keep the pile from shooting under the ice before it is vertical, whereupon it may be knocked off. The pile will then drop into the proper place.

Now you are ready to blind a pole (or sweep lever)

to the pile. This is done with a common log chain, care being taken to blind it so that it can be secured in the right direction. Hitch a sharp-shod horse to the outer end and lead him around the pile (caution! caution!).

It is an easy matter now to screw a large pile from four to eight feet into mud or gravel or to unscrew it and remove it.

The accompanying photographs illustrate the work on threads ready for use, and the plan of screwing in a left hand threaded pile by the aid of a horse. We often put in smaller poles by hand, using two or three men instead of a horse.

We have recently taken out two steamer tie posts that have been in use for eight years, having begun to decay. These unscrewed posts we found had been in sixteen feet of clay and quicksand (possibly due to increased irrigation) which are distinctly "mushy" without the aid of instruments. Mr. Keeling quotes the mean temperature at Abasco for each pentade from 1870 to 1904, and for the four years 1904-8, but the result shows that the difference are hardly greater than might be caused by difference of exposure of the thermometer. As regards humidity, also, there is very little evidence of any decided change during the last forty years. It is confidently asserted by many persons that the rainfall has increased during quite recent years, but the author shows that there is little, if any, evidence of such being the case. The total rainfall of any year is often influenced by the fall on a single day, and is consequently very variable from one year to another, the driest year on record at Abasco in 1892, with little more than a quarter of an inch of rain, and the wettest, 1904, with less than 3 inches, the mean for 1871-1906 being approximately 1.4 inch.

To the *Calvo Scientific Journal* for January last Mr. B. F. E. Keeling communicates an interesting paper on climate changes in Egypt. There is a strong belief among residents that changes have occurred within the last ten or twenty years (possibly due to increased irrigation) which are distinctly "mushy" without the aid of instruments. Mr. Keeling quotes the mean temperature at Abasco for each pentade from 1870 to 1904, and for the four years 1904-8, but the result shows that the difference are hardly greater than might be caused by difference of exposure of the thermometer. As regards humidity, also, there is very little evidence of any decided change during the last forty years. It is confidently asserted by many persons that the rainfall has increased during quite recent years, but the author shows that there is little, if any, evidence of such being the case. The total rainfall of any year is often influenced by the fall on a single day, and is consequently very variable from one year to another, the driest year on record at Abasco in 1892, with little more than a quarter of an inch of rain, and the wettest, 1904, with less than 3 inches, the mean for 1871-1906 being approximately 1.4 inch.

## AN ARTISTIC REINFORCED CONCRETE BRIDGE

A COMING TYPE FOR COUNTY HIGHWAY BRIDGES

In country districts where the materials are readily accessible the reinforced concrete bridge should prove to be an ideal system for the construction of concrete bridges of moderate span. We say of moderate span, for the reason that the art of trussed bridge construction in reinforced concrete is as yet in too early a stage of its development to warrant its indiscriminate use in bridges of considerable span. In structures of moderate length, say up to about eighty or a hundred feet, if care is taken in proportioning the parts, especially at the joints, and very particular care is taken in securing a thorough bond between concrete and steel, the county concrete bridge is as yet in too early a stage of its development to warrant its indiscriminate use in bridges of considerable span. In structures of moderate length, say up to about eighty or a hundred feet, if care is taken in proportioning the parts, especially at the joints, and very particular care is taken in securing a thorough bond between concrete and steel, the county concrete bridge is as yet in too early a stage of its development to warrant its indiscriminate use in bridges of considerable span.

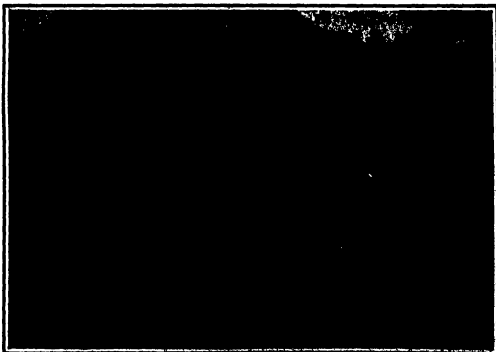
The accompanying illustration shows a bridge of this class of the bowstring type which was recently built in Canada. It has a span of 80 feet and provides a clear roadway 18 feet wide. The total weight is about 160 tons, and it contains about 11 tons of reinforcement in the form of plates and round rods.

The bridge was designed to carry a load of one hundred pounds per

square foot evenly distributed, and it was tested for this load with an additional load of 35 tons represented by a herd of 70 cattle.

On the score of appearance it must be conceded that the design is decidedly pleasing. The intersection of the balustrade with the chord and web members having been worked out with considerable taste. The structure spans the Moholke River, in the counties of York and Peel, Canada.

No sooner had the first modest attempt to alter



A REINFORCED CONCRETE BRIDGE OF ARTISTIC DESIGN.

ships by aerial electric waves been crowned with more or less success, then endeavors were made to direct the course of balloons and aeroplanes in the same manner. The American engineer Anthony has made experiments off Sandy Hook, with a small unmanned dirigible balloon, which he succeeded in guiding more than a mile seaward and bringing back to the point of departure. Prof. Winchell suggests the employment of unmanned aeroplanes for the study of atmospheric electricity and has designed an apparatus of this kind. It is obvious that such an apparatus, equipped with the necessary instruments, which could be sent to great heights without danger and brought back with certainty, would be much more useful for the study of the atmosphere, and especially that of atmospheric electricity, than unmanned registering balloons, the recovery of which is always a matter of chance, or manned balloons and kites, the use of which is not unattended with danger in stormy weather. Balloons controlled from a distance by electric waves would also be very useful in the rescue of shipwrecked persons and for many military and other purposes. But—and this objection applies also to the wireless direction of ships and torpedoes—it is a long step from successful experiments in favorable conditions to uniform success in practical operations.

# Instrument for Detecting Violations of the Speed Laws

BY L. GORDON GLAZIER

A very ingenious instrument for recording the speed and license number of an automobile has been devised by two inventors of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The instrument, which is but little larger than a pocket kodak, consists of a double camera with a watch movement which controls the operation of the camera.

When an automobile passes at a speed that seems excessive, the operator trains the instruments upon it and releases the mechanism by pressing a button. Immediately the shutter of the upper camera is sprung

in the time interval, the second image is smaller than the first by an amount which can easily be measured with an ordinary scale, divided in hundredths of an inch; and knowing that the standard wheel tread is 54 inches, the distances of the two objects from the camera and hence the speed the automobile has covered in the time interval is easily found by the following law. The distance of any object from the lens is as many times greater than the focal distance of the camera as the length of any line of the real object is greater than its length in the photograph. This is a simple proportion in which three of the terms are known namely, the size of the object, the size of the image of the object on the plate, and the distance of the image from the lens. The fourth term of the proportion, the distance of the object from the lens, follows by simple division. However, the operator is saved all trouble computation by a table attached to the instrument.

To overcome the possible objection by the courts, the watch has been designed so that the operator of the instrument may actually see it during the process of taking the picture. This is made possible by simply boring a hole from the outside of the camera box to the back of the watch, which brings to view a dial around which travels a hand attached to the same piston or staff as the regular hand of the watch. In order to see this dial more plainly, two mirrors have been placed permanently in such a manner as to illuminate it.

The instrument gives extremely accurate results, and can be calibrated from time to time on objects of known speeds.

The inventors believe that the instrument should be welcomed by autists as well as police. It is an impartial judge the personal element being entirely eliminated. A motorist who has been stopped does not have to rely on an officer's estimate of the speed, nor on the speed claimed by the officers operating a trap by means of stop watch and signals. "Dozens of motorists are fighting cases every day who honestly believe that they were not oversteering when stopped. They would be perfectly willing to pay their fines if convinced they were violating the law. Even where the more rational view is taken that the speed alone shall not determine whether or not a man is violating the law, but that the speed taken in connection with the surroundings shall determine it. It is always a question of the officer's word against the autist's as to surroundings. This photographic speed recorder shows whether there were several vehicles near the automobile whether people were crossing the street, whether it was more than ordinarily dangerous to run at the speed indicated, or more than ordinarily safe.

A great advantage of the instrument is that it records speed over a short distance. In the congested portions of cities, near crowded cross streets and in similar situations, it offers the only existing method of measuring momentary bursts of speed. The record of any reckless driver can be easily obtained and a print sent directly to him, when he cannot deny the evidence of his own eyes, and in many cases an arrest will not be necessary, as the offense will not be repeated.

Regarding the legality of this speed recorder in a recent case that was strongly contested Judge Ham

mond of the Massachusetts Supreme Court said: "The result of the evidence did not depend upon the fluctuations of human senses nor on conditions where relations to results were uncertain, but upon the immutable working of natural laws, and upon the



PEED OF AN AUTOMOBILE SHOWN BY TWO CONSECUTIVE PHOTOGRAPHS

evidence the presiding judge may well have found that such experiments were likely to be more reliable as to the speed of the automobile than the conjectural statement of an eyewitness or the interested statement of a chauffeur.



DOUBLE CAMERA WITH WHICH VIOLATIONS OF THE SPEED LAWS ARE DETECTED.

taking a photograph of the receding automobile, and a moment later the other shutter is sprung, taking a second image of the automobile, whereupon the timing mechanism comes to a stop. The plate is developed by the regular process, and the resulting negative shows an image of the automobile near the operator with its license number distinct, and a second view of the machine taken at the end of the time interval in the center of the print are the photographs of the hands of the stop watch caught when the first and second exposures were made.

Since the automobile has traversed a certain space

## Sacredness Compulsions Paid to New Buildings in Antiquity

A superstition that still envelops a great part of the earth is that special firmness may be given to a building and that it may be protected from hostile influences by including a living creature, preferably a human being, in one of the walls of the building itself. This belief, which is particularly prevalent in the Balkan peninsula and, for instance, has given to the Roumanian Queen, Carmen Sylva, material for one of her most beautiful folk tales, has not been known as having had any hold in Italy hitherto. Recently, in the course of archaeological research, it was found that in the foundation of the Temple of Fortuna in Pompeii there was a hollow space in which nothing other than the skull of a tortoise was found which had broken into four places. Here, consequently, was proof of the practice of immurement of a tortoise, which was enhanced by the disposition of the square blocks of stone of the creature's prison. In Italy this superstition may have passed at an early day into oblivion, as the custom of human beings was foreign to the Roman religion, and was practiced occasionally only under Greek influence. As, however, the sacrifices of human beings among the old Greeks was not unusual, both to deities as well as in the adjacent countries the tradition of sacrifices to new buildings is still insisted, it may be

believed that in old Greece also the sacrificial immurement of new buildings was no unknown. Instances of this kind of sacrifice in antiquity are certainly not frequent, all those of which we have any knowledge are attributed to the Greek Orient. Usually a maiden was sacrificed who, at the same time, became the guardian spirit of the structure. For this reason Trajan effected the erection in the theater at Antioch of the statue of the girl who has been sacrificed on the occasion of the destruction of the altar of Artemis. The goddess was designated as Tyche, the Goddess of Fortune of the name of her sacrifice. It is this idea which still lives today at the root of this superstition of sacrificial immurement. It is this idea which has caused the wall of a house or other building, so that its soul may live in the structure and never escape from it. At the present day a vicious sacrifice takes the place of such immurement. The victim is sacrificed, and is represented symbolically only, either by taking the measure of a person, or of the shadow, and immuring the string representing the measure or by incensing in the wall the burning of a stick, or still more frequently, by making such a vicious sacrifice in the form of the Pompeian temple, and probably the tortoise was selected because this animal can live a long time without nourishment, and the builders believed that the creature, being therefore the longer the immured creature lived,

## The Manumens Rope.

When death is caused by hanging, what proportion does the pull to which the rope is subjected during the struggles of the victim bear to the weight of the body? This novel question has been asked and answered by experiment by Dr. Angelo de Donatella. The tension in such case was measured by a dynamometer attached to the rope. A living dog, suspended in such a manner that it remained quiet exerted a pull of 20 pounds, but the subsequent hanging of the same animal produced a pull of 42 pounds. With a larger animal the corresponding tensions were 50 pounds and 103 pounds.

Hence it appears that the convulsive movements of the victim may increase the tension of the rope to more than twice the weight of the body. This result explains the occurrence in the bodies of persons killed by hanging of serious lesions which it would be difficult or impossible to produce by hanging up a corpse. The strength of the rope must also be taken into account. If a body is found suspended by a rope the breaking strength of which is little greater than the weight of the corpse, it may fairly be inferred that the body was not suspended until after death. Hence the experiments furnish valuable data for determining the cause of death in such cases and will probably be made use of in some future detective story.

# JUPITER AND HIS SATELLITES

BY PROF. FREDERIC R. HONEY, TRINITY COLLEGE

Jupiter and his satellites command especial attention at the present time, owing to the fact that this greatest of all the planets is observed only to Venus in brilliancy, is approaching opposition which will be reached on March 30th Jupiter will then be both morning and evening star.

The comparatively recent increase in the number of Jupiter's satellites from four to seven and possibly eight as revealed by the growing power of the telescope directs the astronomer's eye to a satellite upon the Jovian system.

The satellite which is nearest the planet revolves around its great primary in the short space of twelve hours, at a distance of only 68,400 miles from the surface, while the outer most moon shows its extreme remoteness from its center of attraction (the enormous distance of 7,420,000 miles) by a revolution requiring 265 days. Thus is attempted a perfect conformity to Kepler's laws. A small magnifying power reveals the elliptic outline of Jupiter, whose polar depression is as evenly marked the equatorial and polar diameters showing a difference of over 5000 miles.

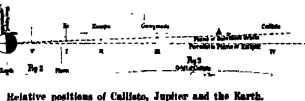
In the plot of the orbit Jupiter's position is shown for the date of opposition, which is very near opposition, also for the oppositions from 1905 to 1911 inclusive. The average interval between oppositions is 398 days. But, in obedience to Kepler's second law, the planet's velocity at aphelion is diminishing, the last opposition occurred on February 25th, 1909, and the next will occur on April 30th, 1911. At perihelion the velocity was accelerated. The dates of the oppositions, which occurred before and after the perihelion passage were respectively September 11th, 1902, and October 18th, 1904.

The five inner satellites revolve in orbits whose planes very nearly coincide with that of Jupiter's equator. This plane forms a small angle with the ecliptic, and may be represented approximately by a straight line (Fig. 1). The distances from Jupiter to the satellites are represented by the same scale as the planet. It is impossible to show the positions of the two outer satellites by this scale within the limits of this page, since their distance from Jupiter are over six times that between the planet and Callisto. It should be noted that all the satellites are nearest to the same side of the planet at the same time, as shown in the figure. This "view of the satellites" orbits is obtained when Jupiter reaches the positions A and B shown in the plot of the orbit. When Jupiter is near either of these points, the five satellites appear to move back and forth in straight lines, and at every revolution of each satellite there is alternately a transit across Jupiter's disk and an occultation by the planet. Fig. 1 shows Jupiter and the orbits as seen from the earth in 1908. In 1902 this figure was reversed. During Jupiter's revolution around the sun in 11.86 years, the planet and the satellites are continually changing their positions relative to the ecliptic. The plane of the orbit is inclined at an angle of 1.3 deg., and that part which is above the ecliptic is represented by the full line. The line joining the points V and X (the ascending and descending nodes) is the intersection of the plane of the planet's orbit with that of the ecliptic. In Fig. 2 a visual ray A from the earth tangent to the planet shows that, soon in this direction, Callisto is no longer occulted by Jupiter. Between the positions A and C, and between B and D, the orbits very gradually open out to the ecliptic form, and at C and D the length of the minor axis reaches its maximum.

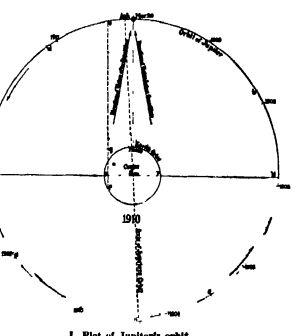
Fig. 3 represents the position when the satellites no longer suffer occultation by Jupiter. Occasions of occultations evidently begin some time before the date when the ecliptic opens to its maximum width. But in the plot of the orbits of the four inner satellites are smaller, and with them transits and occultations continue. There will be no occultation or transit of Callisto or its shadow this year after January 25th. The day the shadow was projected on Jupiter between 9 h 11 m and 10 h 5 m. In the plot of the orbits of Jupiter and of

the satellites the general directions of the lines of vision from the earth before and after opposition are indicated by arrows.

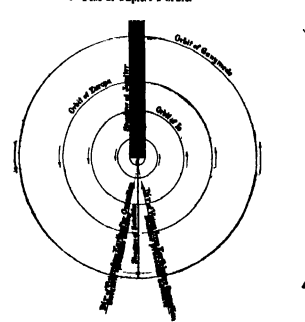
Obviously the planet does not occupy the same position in its orbit as that shown in the plot before and after opposition. But if this page be rotated clockwise and counter clockwise through small angles, one position will represent Jupiter in his orbit before, and the other that after opposition. Before opposi-



Relative positions of Callisto, Jupiter and the Earth.



1. Plot of Jupiter's orbit.



II. Plot of Jupiter's orbit and of his satellites' orbits.

JUPITER AND HIS SATELLITES.

tion it is clear that the transit of the satellite's shadow precedes that of the satellite, and after opposition the satellite precedes the shadow. For example, Ganymede's shadow crossed Jupiter's disk on January 7th between the hours of 14 h 44 m and 17 h 31 m. (W. M. T.) The shadow was clear of the planet before the transit of the satellite commenced two hours and twenty minutes later. On June 28th the same satellite will cross Jupiter's disk between the hours 9 h 34 m and 11 h 57 m, and the shadow will follow 2 hours and 37 minutes later. When a satellite passes into the shadow of its primary, it is described as "eclipsed." The dates of the transits of the satellites and their shadows, and of the eclipses and occultations, are given in the *Marshall Almanac* for ten months. For two months before and

after conjunction (October 19th) when Jupiter's proximity to the sun will be too close for observations, the phenomena of the satellites are omitted.

Observations of the occultations of Jupiter's satellites provide a valuable means for verifying the velocity of light. As the earth revolves from Jupiter after opposition, an occultation is observed to occur after a longer interval of time than that which would elapse if the planets were separated by a constant distance, and after conjunction, when the earth is approaching Jupiter, the intervals are observed to diminish. Light crosses the earth's orbit in a little less than a thousand 185,000,000

seconds = 16 m. 27 s. At the

185,280

date of opposition this year Jupiter's distance from the earth is 413.8 million miles.

Occultation of a satellite at the distance

413,800,000

is observed on the earth 185,280

or 37 minutes after its occurrence. The points

c and f are respectively the positions of Jupiter and the earth at the same date when the projection on the plane of the ecliptic of the line connecting the planet and the earth is that of March 30th. At the second date, when the earth is at f, observation of a phenomenon of Jupiter's satellites occurs later than would be the case if the earth remained at the constant distance (g) from Jupiter, and the difference in time is that represented by the interval g, or

$g \times 907$  seconds.

A comparison of the earth and moon with Jupiter's satellite system is shown in Figs. 1 and 2, which are drawn to the same scale. The moon's distance from the earth does not differ very much from its distance from Jupiter. The revolution of the latter is accomplished in 177 days, and of the former in 29.5 days. If the distances were reduced to correspond with that of the moon from the earth, the period of the satellite would be even shorter than that which is given in the table. The reason is that the plane of the planet's satellites maintains them in their orbits in opposition to the great central force attracting them to Jupiter whose mass is 318 times that of the earth. In the table the diameters of satellites V, VI, and VII are not given. They are too small for accurate measurement, the diameters ranging from 50 to 100 miles.

JUPITER'S SATELLITES.

Name	Distance, Miles.	Period, Days.	Diameter, Miles.
I	118,280	1.769	1,000
II	193,000	3.551	1,000
III	413,000	7.154	1,000
IV	1,167,000	16.68	1,000
V	7,420,000	268.0	1,000

That the controlling device for a single-phase car equipment need not be more complicated than for a direct-current car, states the Electrical World, will be apparent at once from the fact that any of the methods now used with the latter type of car can be applied immediately to the former without alteration. It is evident that by selecting a suitably low value of trolley E. M. F. the familiar series-parallel arrangement of motors with rheostatic acceleration can be applied to series motors of the single-phase type equally as satisfactorily as to those of the direct-current type. Moreover, with the alternating-current equipment it is possible to substitute rheostats for the resistance of the rheostats, and thereby eliminate a considerable portion of the energy dissipated as heat in the control circuits during acceleration. In addition, with the single-phase car can be obtained, conveniently, any desired number of voltages to be impressed upon the motor circuits, and there is thus no objection to limiting the E. M. F. to a single value, as is done with direct-current equipment. To this must be added the essential difference between the controlling circuits of single-phase and direct-current cars.



MARCH 16, 2012

**THE ROCK-HEWN CITY OF PETRA**  
AN ALL BUT IMPREGNABLE ANCIENT TOWN  
BY HAROLD J. SHEPSTONE



**The rock-hewn obelisks of Petra.**

The view is taken here up to the mouth of the narrow valley called the Waly Moose (the Vale of Moose) in which the famous rock-cut city of Petra reposed in ancient times, securely shut in from attack of the marauding desert tribes. It is on what was the base of the Mountains of Obolus, so called from the huge monolith pillars that have been made with incredible skill by cutting away from all around them the mountain top. Their height can be judged by comparison with the figure of a Bedouin standing by one of them. They are evidently Egyptian in their conception and design, and also are many of the prisons and temples of Petra.

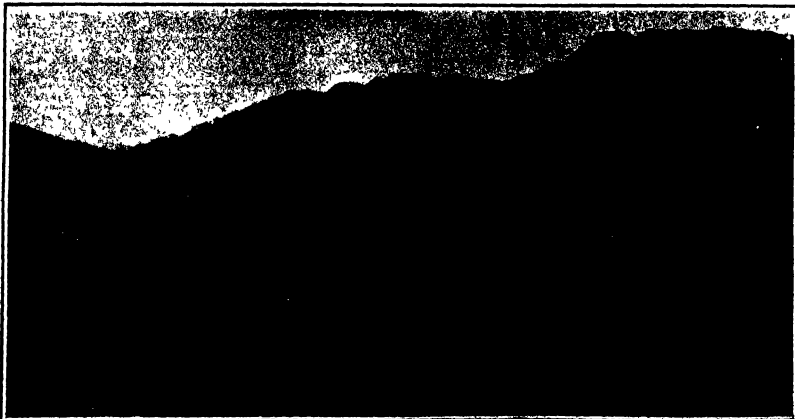
Unique amid the many wonders of the Orient and the remains of hoary civilisations stands Petra, the rock-hewn city the city so graphically addressed by the prophet as "Thou that dwellest in the clefts of the rocks" (Isaiah 16:1). The city is the subject referred to in the challenge of the Psalmist (80:9): "Who will bring me into the strong city? Who will lead me into Idom?" It lies on the northwest edge of the great Arabian desert about midway between Damascus and Jerusalem. It is a city of the past, such as Palmyra and Baalbek, whose crumbling piles of magnificent architectural monuments but in Petra, high up among the mountain crags that sentinel it, are temples, theaters, tombs, and other structures, strong and indestructible, standing almost as perfect as when they were first built. The city is the only one of which they still form a part.

These ruins (if ruins they may be called) challenge admiration by the variety of styles they embody, showing, in the most ancient creations early native art intermixed with Egyptian and in the later magnificent edifices the best types of Greek and Roman architecture, and by the exquisite hues of the sandstone from which they were hewn, varying from the prevailing purplish red of the mountains and cliffs to the delicate pink and rose color of some strata, and the white crimson yellow and blue-lilac boned veins in other places, rivaling the softness of

the plumage of birds or the petals of flowers

Petra, so long inaccessible because of its remoteness and the danger from roving Bedouins, may now be reached by a six hours' ride westward toward the Arabah from El Maan, a station on the new Mecca railroad. Prof Gustaf Dalman, director of the German Archaeological School of Jerusalem and the author of a monumental work on Petra, has just paid another visit to this scene of his former explorations, in which he was accompanied by photographers from the American Museum of Natural History. He secured a number of photographs of these majestic ruins, some of the most striking of which we here reproduce for our readers.

Petra nestling amid its precipices and cliffs almost in the shadow of Mount Hor, called by the natives Jebel Harun (Aaron), from the tradition that it was upon the top of the mount that Aaron died, is approachable only from the east through a deep and narrow dingle which the little stream of the Wady Musa has in past ages cut for itself in the red sandstone. The gorge opens in one place to about two miles in width for a distance of about a mile, and here, protected by mountains and precipices on every side, this remarkable town lay secure from attack from without. It was its impregnable position and its being on the great caravan route to the Red Sea from the north that gave it the importance it had as

[illegible]

**PREPA: AN ANCIENT CITY CARVED OUT OF A MOUNTAIN OF SANDSTONE AND ENTERED BY A MYSTERIOUS RITE TWO MILES LONG**





The theater among the rock-cut ruins of Petra.

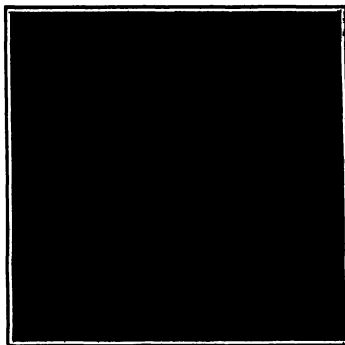


Ed Ber, one of the most remarkable of the temples and tombs of Petra.

hewn equestrian and other statues the whole terminating above in a miniature temple crowned by a huge urn, the entire height being about 65 feet. Within is a bare lofty room and some chambers.

A short distance beyond one emerges into the mountain guarded valley in which the city lay, mounds of debris marking the sites of the former homes of the Petrans, the population in the city's palmy days being estimated at from forty to eighty thousand souls. The rock-hewn structures chiseled in the precipitous cliffs on every side were public buildings and tombs rather than dwellings. Just on the left, as the valley is entered is the vast rock-cut theater in semicircular form, capable of holding 3,000 spectators. Here the workmanship is Greek. There are thirty-three tiers of seats. In this locality are some of the oldest tombs, including detached pyramids. Many of the oldest tombs were cut away when the theater was hewn out of the mountain side. One of our photographs is of the theater.

Standing in this small open valley one sees the façades of tombs and temples of many styles and dimensions with many niches for votive offerings. They are at all elevations, many low down on the mountain side, and others high up in the cliffs, with stairways cut in the rock to



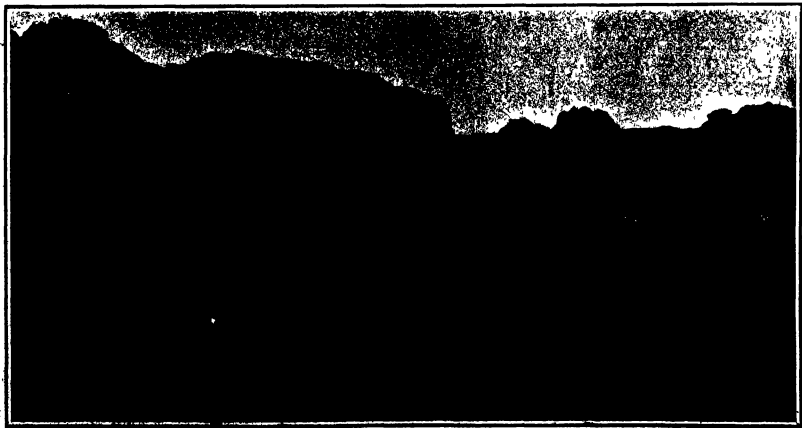
The Silk, the entrance to Petra, the impregnable rock-hewn city of antiquity.

reach them. While most of them stand out conspicuously others are hidden in the mountain recesses and lateral valleys. How eloquent are these silent pylons and obelisks of Edom and Egypt, and those columns and capitals of Greece and Rome! What diverse peoples these tombs have looked down upon when living and given sepulture to when dead! And how many different religions have been represented by ministering priests at these shrines!

One of our photographs is of a tomb or temple in three stories cut out of the mountain wall on the east and showing a succession of similar buildings beyond. The façade of this tomb is not like most of the others. It is imitation of a temple, but of a lovely palace and it has been considerably damaged.

On the opposite side of the valley to the west stand the ruins of a masonry edifice called by the natives Kaer Parion (the Castle of Pharaoh), of which we also give a photograph. It was a Roman harbor temple.

Behind the Kaer Parion a rock-cut staircase leads up the rugged hill of the Acropolis to the Place of Sacrifice with its altar, pool, and court, all hewn out of the living rock. This was a typical holy place, or "high place," of the primitive (Continued on page 227)



along the ruins of antiquity. Guarded the stupendous walls of rock which enclose this ancient habitation, and which have been known, but as insular of Petra, has adopted the winding lines of lines enclosing walls with all the beauty of architecture and art—with temples, roads, and palaces, columns, portico, and

pillars—with the mountains beneath present Petra in her widest and most savage form, and among the loathsome impressions of your soul will be the memories of this silent, beautiful "ruined city half as old as time."

PETRA: AN ANCIENT CITY CARVED OUT OF A MOUNTAIN OF SANDSTONE AND ENTERED BY A MYSTERIOUS SLIT TWO MILES LONG.

## AN ELECTRICAL FEVER RECORDER

BY DR. ALFRED GRADENWITZ

Fever, i. e., the rise in blood temperature attending certain maladies is known to be the outcome of a spontaneous reaction on the part of the body against the microbes invading it. The opinion is therefore, erroneous that fever in all cases should be acted against in order thus to subdue the morbid state of the patient. Nevertheless it is of the highest importance that the physician be kept informed of the variable temperature of the blood.

According to present practice temperature readings are taken at regular intervals, say three or four times a day by a small time thermometer. This practice obviously gives no information as to those oscillations in temperature which may have occurred in the meantime and which, in some cases, it would be desirable to know. A process allowing this important factor to be recorded continually and automatically therefore, is worthy of universal attention. A firm of Berlin constructors, Messrs Siemens & Halske, have recently perfected an apparatus achieving this result.

The apparatus is based on a very simple principle viz the alteration in the electrical resistance of platinum wire by variations in temperature. It comprises in addition to a coil of platinum wire a Wheatstone bridge and a self recording millivoltmeter.

The platinum coil is either introduced into some of the cavities of the body or fixed on the body. A double conductor of low resistance connects the coil with the bridge and millivoltmeter, which converts any variations in the resistance of the platinum wire and accordingly the temperature of the body.

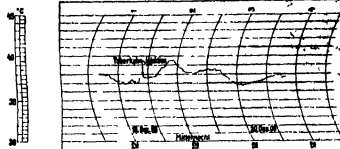
The current required to feed the apparatus is supplied by a small storage battery of four volts, the gradual drop in tension being compensated for in a simple manner by means of a testing and regulating resistance with coarse and fine adjustment. As the normal range of the recording apparatus comprises the interval between 70 deg and 100 deg C the curve registered are of sufficient distinctness for any therapeutical and scientific purpose.

The electrical fever recorder is constructed in two different types.

In the first type, the rotating coil of the millivoltmeter is suspended from a strip of metal, the curve being recorded on a paper tape about 4½ meters in length which is moved along by a clockwork at a speed of 20 millimeters per hour. The useful width of the tape is 120 millimeters. Below the paper tape there moves under the action of a clockwork an inked ribbon, over which oscillates a pointer carrying at its end a marker. The position of the pointer is marked by a dot each minute. The series of points thus produced forms a distinct curve. The clockwork should be wound up once a week, a new paper roll being inserted every three months.

The second type comprises a rotary coil located between points, so that the apparatus is insensitive to any moderate oscillations while not requiring accurate horizontal adjustment. The registering tape

is wound together with a sheet of carbon paper round a drum. As in the former apparatus, a style marks time. The apparatus is designed either for a rotation of the drum (about 240 millimeters in periphery) in about 7 days or in 24 hours. The paper tape and carbon should be exchanged after each turn, which is a very easy matter. The dropping of the bow occurs,



Record obtained with fever recorder, showing effect of intervals ignition

In accordance with the rotation speed of the drum, and takes place either every 12 or every 24 minutes in order to allow for both speeds, the apparatus can be fitted with two drums, exchanged against each other by a simple manipulation. The useful width of the paper tape in this case is about 20 millimeters i. e., somewhat less than in connection with the former type. This is why the one is generally used for accurate scientific investigations and the latter for ordinary clinical apparatus.

#### Treasure Hunting.

IN DEEPER WATERS

The United States Hydrographic Bureau and Coast Survey has charts of the Great Lakes and the Atlantic and Pacific coasts which are consulted eagerly by

the sailors they tell a whole history of shipwrecks and adventures, depicting the position of lost treasure and the position of the shipwrecked vessels. The charts are so arranged that the position of the shipwrecked vessels is shown in such a way that the sailors can find the position of the shipwrecked vessels.

Some of these wrecks carried away with them gold and silver, precious stones and other valuable objects, and others are laden with ore of great value, but not so generally prized by the treasure seekers. On the Great Lakes alone the latest positions of wrecks are valued at \$1,000,000. In many millions of dollars in bottom and ore. There is no vague uncertainty about these treasures. They were known to exist in the holds of the ships, and no man has yet been able to recover them. The steamer "Pewabic," for instance, which went down in Lake Huron in a storm in 1885, carried with her half a million dollars worth of copper from the Lake Superior mines. For three decades expeditions

sought to find the wreck, and finally it was located about six miles southeast of Thunder Bay. But the wreck was in such deep water that only a very small fraction of her cargo was ever recovered. Here is a submarine copper mine which might tempt the most adventurous soul to risk his life in gaining.

The chart of wrecks on the Great Lakes compiled by the Hydrographic Bureau and Coast Survey shows the relative depth of water and this simple record is the whole story of why outcropping man has not been able to recover them. Divers seeking treasures in sunken vessels have learned that anything which lies more than 100 feet deep is very difficult, if not absolutely impossible to recover. The pressure of the water beyond that depth becomes so great that diving suits are apt to collapse and crush the wearer. We know from a study of the charts that hundreds

of ships loaded with treasures have sunk in water ranging from 100 to 250 feet in depth and if diving suits could be invented to withstand the enormous water pressure at the lowest depth and enable the diver to work easily, enormous fortunes could be quickly made.

The whole history of treasure hunting under the water has been marked by man's futile effort to fight against the pressure at great depths. One hundred feet below the surface of the sea, the pressure is about fifty pounds to the square inch. The ordinary diving suit of rubber is sufficed by compressed air, which is supplied at 30 the depth needed. Below one hundred feet the diving suit begins to frequently collapse. There have been many fatal accidents in attempting to work below the

100-foot mark. For instance, when the steamer "Pewabic" was located in Lake Huron, at Thunder Bay, Toledo, Ohio, went down to inspect it, and two sailors up dead. The steamer was in a depth of water, approximately 200 feet. Two other divers in the boat, few years met the same fate. In 1897, the "Pewabic" (Continued on page 227.)



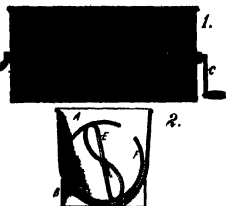
AN ELECTRICAL FEVER RECORDER WHICH RECORDS A PATIENT'S TEMPERATURE FOR EVERY MINUTE OF THE DAY AND NIGHT.

a large class of adventurers and hard, practical men of business and science, who are interested in the recovery of lost wealth through improved methods of deep-sea diving and investigations. These charts are simple and unimpressive in appearance, yet might easily be mistaken for ordinary coast charts with bars and there data to represent submerged reefs or rocks, but



## DOUGH-MIXING APPARATUS.

Pictured in the accompanying engraving is a device adapted more particularly for kneading dough, but which is also applicable for mixing, stirring, or churning any material for household or culinary



DOUGH-MIXING APPARATUS.

purpose. The machine comprises an approximately rectangular receptacle *A* formed, however, with a curved bottom, and an outer casing *B*, which acts as a support for the receptacle. The end walls of this mixing machine are provided with journal bearings, in one of which a crank handle *C* is supported. The other journal consists of a socket *D*, adapted to receive one end of a spirally curved stirrer blade *E*. The opposite end of the stirrer blade is formed with a threaded hub into which an extension of the crank handle axis is screwed. Secured to the stirrer blade at each end are a pair of outwardly projecting arms or curved fingers *F*, the object of which is to reach the material that is not properly stirred and mixed by the main stirrer blade. In use as the crank handle is turned, the fingers tend to feed the material toward the center, so that it is fully acted upon by the main blade. We are informed that in practice this type of stirrer kneads and mixes the dough thoroughly and evenly in a comparatively short time. By holding the stirrer blade and turning the crank in a reverse direction, the latter will be uncrewed from the hub so that both the crank and the stirrer blade may be removed from the receptacle. A patent on this mixing mechanism has been granted to Mr. Shaver E. Ray of McConnellsburg, Pa.

## IMPROVED STEP LADDER.

In the *Scientific American* of November 14th, 1908, we published a description of a collapsible step ladder. An improvement upon this form of ladder has recently been patented, which is provided with an upper section that may be removed and replaced with a shorter section, thus reducing the height of the ladder. As shown in the accompanying engraving, the ladder consists of the lower side-rails *A*, connected by means of sleeves with the upper side-rails *B*. The ladder is collapsed by swinging one side against the other, but normally the rails are held apart by means of a diagonal brace, such as shown on the lower section of the ladder. The steps *C* of the ladder are hinged to one of the side-rails as shown in Fig. 1, while at the opposite side they are provided

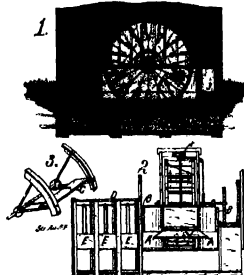


IMPROVED STEP LADDER.

with brackets *D*, in which are slots adapted to engage hinges pins secured in the side-rails *A*. This slot and pin connection provides the necessary play when the ladder is collapsed. The pins on which the steps are hinged lie at right angles to the rails *A*, and in order that the tread surface may be horizontal, the steps are made of a substantially wedge shape, as indicated in the illustrations. The top of platform *B* of the ladder is also hinged to the rails at the points *FF*, which lie on an axis at right angles to the rails *A*. To support the ladder in its normal inclined position, two legs *G* are provided. The legs are connected by the usual links *H* to the rails *A*, and at the upper ends they have extension pieces that are hinged to the rails *B*. When it is desired to shorten the ladder, these extension pieces with the upper rails *B* are withdrawn from their sockets. Then a top piece, such as indicated in Fig. 2, is applied to the ladder, the four short legs of this piece being inserted in the sleeves at the upper ends of the rails *A*. The legs *G* are now made fast to the rails *A* by means of pins *J*, which pass through them and also through the legs of the top piece. To prevent the legs *G* from spreading too far they are retained by means of brace bars *K*. The links *H* in this case are unnecessary and are folded upon them selves, as indicated in Fig. 2. Mr. William J. Dimmell Box 182, Brooklyn, N. Y., is the inventor of this improved step ladder.

## NOVEL CURRENT WHEEL.

A number of advantages are claimed for the wheel illustrated herewith which regulate it so that it does not require the use of dam, it regulates as to the rise and fall of the stream, uses only the surface current, is equipped with feathering blades, and is provided with means for preventing the parts from freezing fast in cold weather. The wheel is supported on pontoons, as indicated at *A* in the illustration.



NOVEL CURRENT WHEEL.

The pontoons are connected by means of links or parallel arms *B* to a fixed framework supported on piles driven into the bed of the stream. Fig. 3 shows the construction of the blades used on the wheel. The spokes of the wheel are arranged in two parallel sets which are bifurcated at their outer ends. The blades *C* are hinged to rods connecting the parallel spokes and have free play in the bifurcated portions. This provides a very strong construction, and enables the blades to accommodate themselves to the current so that there is no lifting of the water as in ordinary water wheels. It will be evident that as the water rises and falls, the wheel will rise and fall with it so that the blades will always extend to a uniform depth into the water. However when the water rises the surface current is apt to be very swift, and it is necessary to reduce the flow past the wheel. This is effected as follows: On the upstream side of the structure a wing *D* (Fig. 2) is built out diagonally into the stream, so as to direct a large portion of the current between the pontoons and against the water wheel. In this wing are a number of flood gates *E* connected by means of ropes and rollers to rods the pontoons *A* in such a way that as the water rises, the gates will open, permitting the water to flow through them, and thus cutting down the current that strikes the wheel. To protect the parts in cold weather, a casing is built over the wheel, at the top of which is a suction fan *F*. This is belted to the wheel as shown in Fig. 3. Through a duct *G* a current of warm air is conducted to the interior of the casing, and thence is sucked out of the top of the casing by means of the fan and delivered through the pipe *H* as indicated by the arrow. At the up- and down-stream sides of the casing, hoods *J* are placed, which open close to the surface of the water, and prevent the air from drawing in cold air instead of the air

through the duct *G*. The inventor of this improved water wheel is Mr. W. P. Spooner, Box 2 "The Manns," Carletonville, Saskatchewan, Canada.

## CAR-RETAINING DEVICE FOR RAILWAY CURVES.

In order to insure the safety of cars when rounding curves, and to prevent the car wheel flanges from having undue frictional engagement with the rails, a safety mechanism has recently been invented, which is pictured in the accompanying engraving. It consists of a central rail *A*, that is supported on the ties



METHOD OF RETAINING CARS AT CURVES.

and is strongly braced by means of anchoring devices *B*, which are imbedded in the ground and terminate in plates *C*. The object of these plates is to prevent the anchoring device from working upward. The illustration shows a portion of a car truck passing over the rail *A*. The axles of the truck are connected by means of auxiliary trusses *D*, below the main truss, on which blocks *E* are supported designed to travel around these blocks *E* are endless chains *F* fitted with rollers. The rollers are pressed by the blocks *E* against the guide rail *A*. As the truck passes round a curve the rollers tend to keep it in place. Ordinarily the forward wheel on the outside of the curve tends to bear against the rail, owing to the fact that it is rigidly connected with its mate on the other side of the curve, and hence it cannot travel faster than the latter. The result is that the flange on the outer wheel is subjected to considerable wear. The retaining device here shown, however, will prevent the flange of the outer wheel from being unduly pressed against the rail. The guide rail serves to prevent spreading of the rails, and keeps the cars from leaving the track. The inventor is Robert Delson, of Pulaski, Cal.

## MASSAGE APPARATUS.

A patent has recently been granted upon a device for securing a vibrator to the hand for application in the operation of massage. The apparatus may be adjustable to adapt it for use by different persons and may be securely clamped to the hand, so as to impart to it the vibratory movement that is used in certain massage treatments. As shown more particularly in Fig. 4, which is a cross section of the device with the vibrator removed, it comprises a padded cushion *A* provided with two plates *B* and *C* which terminate in horns *D* and *E* that fit the palm of the hand. These horns may be covered with sleeves *F* of rubber if desired. The plate *C* is formed with two lugs, between which is mounted a screw *G* and the latter is provided with a knurled thumbpiece, whereby it may be



MASSAGE APPARATUS.

turned. The plate *B* is fitted with a nut *E* that can grasp the screw, and as the screw is turned the plates are relatively adjusted to bring the horns closer or move them farther apart. In this way the device may be clamped on the hand. The cushion *J*, however, renders the device comfortable to the operator. Projecting from the forward end of the device is a bracket *I*, as indicated in Fig. 3, to which the vibrator mechanism is applied. Fig. 4 shows another form of vibrator, which has a threaded stem that engages a socket in the bracket *I*. A locknut *J* serves to make the vibrator fast. This type of vibrator is sometimes equipped with a handle *K* instead of detent lines, so that it may be used without attaching it to the hand in such a case however various "applicators" are secured to the threaded stem to take the place of the operator's hand. Fig. 5 shows another form of vibrator, which is fastened to the bracket by means of a screw. The inventor of this message apparatus is John Ballou, Broadway near Spruce Morris Park New York.

#### STREET INDICATOR FOR CARS

The desirability of having the streets announced by means of a continuous sign in a street car has often been urged but hitherto efforts in this direction have met with little success. Quite recently when a device of this type was about to be adapted on an important city line the objection was raised that it would obstruct and detract from advertisements placed in the cars. This objection is overcome in the apparatus shown in the accompanying engravings, which not only announces the streets but also displays advertisements at the same time. The inventor hopes that by making the device self-acting as well as a convenience to the public, it will meet with better favor than street indicators heretofore devised. The prominence of an advertisement placed where all eyes would be concentrated upon it should make this a most valuable advertising medium. It is the inventor's idea to use a succession of advertisements so that the display could be changed at each street with the street number. The sign display and street indicator is arranged to be hung at any suitable point

The railroads have long recognized the fact that what is needed is not a machine to take the place of the engineer, but one which will act as a check upon the engineer without taking the responsibility from his shoulders—a system that will perform the engine's work in case of any lapse on his part and make a record of this lapse so that the responsibility for failure on the part of the engineer will be deferred. A system of this sort was recently installed for purposes of experiment over a short stretch of the Erie Railroad from Newark to South Peter.

The system is quite ingenious in the fact that it gives protection against broken rails as well as collision, and furthermore is provided with telephone connection which enables the engineer to communicate with station houses along the line when the train is brought to a stop for any reason and even while the train is running at full speed. The advantages of this telephone system will be appreciated by passengers who can use it to communicate with their homes or to conduct business while on road, and the train dispatcher is enabled to come into direct touch with the various units along the line which are under his charge. In this system the track is divided into block sections, and the train as it enters each block electrically tests the block ahead to determine whether

metal frame of the locomotive. Should the metal frame be interrupted the magnets *R* would be deenergized, permitting the valve *V* to open, thus putting on the brakes and blowing the whistle *W* with air from the train line. At the same time the lamp *L*

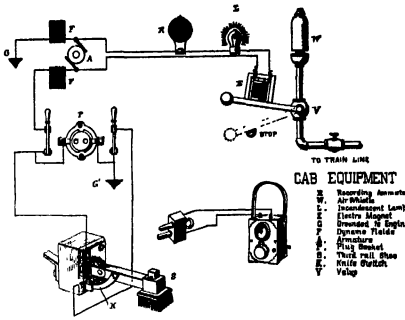
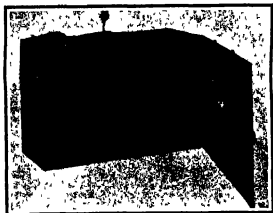


Fig. 1—DIAGRAM OF ELECTRICAL APPARATUS AND CONNECTIONS OF THE CAB OF THE LOCOMOTIVE

would be extinguished and the ammeter would record the time when the interruption occurred. The field circuit is grounded in the locomotive at *G* and *G'* between the fields and the ground *G* is a knife switch *A* mounted on a third rail shoe *S*. At the side of each block extending for a distance of fifty feet is a rail *F* (Fig. 2). When the shoe *S* engages this rail it is lifted, opening the switch *A* and interrupting the circuit of the fields through the locomotive. However, the circuit of the fields would not open unless there should happen to be a broken rail or a train in the next block.

Alongside the track are two lines, *C* and *D*, one of which is connected at intervals with the rails of the track while the other is connected with the third rail sections *F*. These lines *C* and *D* run to a station house where the circuit is completed through a switch that may be opened by the engineer in charge of the house whenever he desires to stop the trains along the system under his control. The line *C* contains a switch *a* for each block section, which is held in closed position against the tension of a spring by means of an electro-magnet *R*. The latter is connected in series with the rails of the track and is energized by a battery *B* at the opposite end of the block system. In case of a breakage in one of the rails, or should a switch be thrown open, the magnet *R* would be de-energized, permitting the switch *a* to open and thereby break the field circuit of the dynamo on the approaching train with the consequent setting of the brakes as described above. The same result would follow if the circuit through the magnet *R* should be short-circuited by a train on the block. At *P* (Fig. 1) is a plug socket adapted to receive the telephone plug connection. The telephone circuit is completed past the switches *a* through a relay *N*. This relay permits the passage of the alternating current of the magnets and telephone, but prevents the passage of the direct current to the dynamo so that telephonic communication is not interrupted by the block system.



STREET INDICATOR FOR CARS

in the car and immediately after passing a street the mechanism is actuated to announce the next street and display a fresh advertisement. This change is effected by means of contact plates which are secured to the cross wire supporting the trolley wire. The contact plates engage a spoke of a wheel, causing the latter to make a quarter turn and momentarily loop an electric circuit coming from the wire that supplies current to light the car. This momentary impulse actuates a relay in the apparatus contained within the case of the indicator, and by means of a small electric motor the web on which the street numbers and signs are printed are turned to the required degree. Should one of the plates become detached from the cross wire the conductor can operate the indicator by means of a switch. When the end of the line is reached the mechanism is reversed so that the streets will be announced successively in the reverse direction. Should the car run a different set of streets on the return trip, instead of running the web forward for the whole round and then rewinding at the starting point the web may be arranged to bear the streets of the return trip interspersed with the streets of the forward trip and a shutter may be employed to cover the street names of the first part of the trip, exposing only those of the return trip. The inventor of this street indicator is Mr. H. Alvin, 214 South 11th Street, St. Louis, Mo.

#### AN AUTOMATIC RAILWAY SAFETY SYSTEM

It is a comparatively simple matter to design an absolutely automatic railroad system in which the engineer will be entirely dispensed with and the trains will run under electrical control from some central controlling station. The reason this has not been done so far, however, is because no entirely automatic engine is as safe as one controlled by an engineer.

there is any obstruction on the rails or whether the rails are broken.

The accompanying diagram illustrates the equipment used. On the locomotive there is a shunt wound dynamo driven by a small steam turbine which is supplied with steam from the boiler in series with the armature *A* of this dynamo is an invariable lamp *L*, a recording ammeter *R*, and an electro-magnet *R* which serves normally to hold the arm of valve *V* on the airbrake pipe of the train. The fields *F* of the dynamo have their circuit completed through the

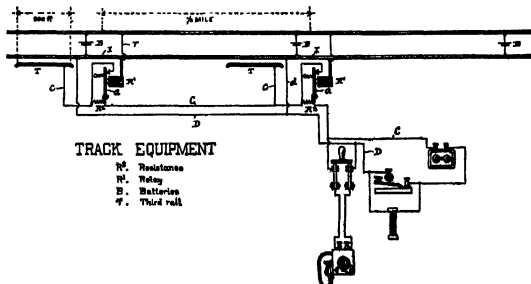


Fig. 2—THE TRACK SAFETY AND TELEPHONE SYSTEM



















# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

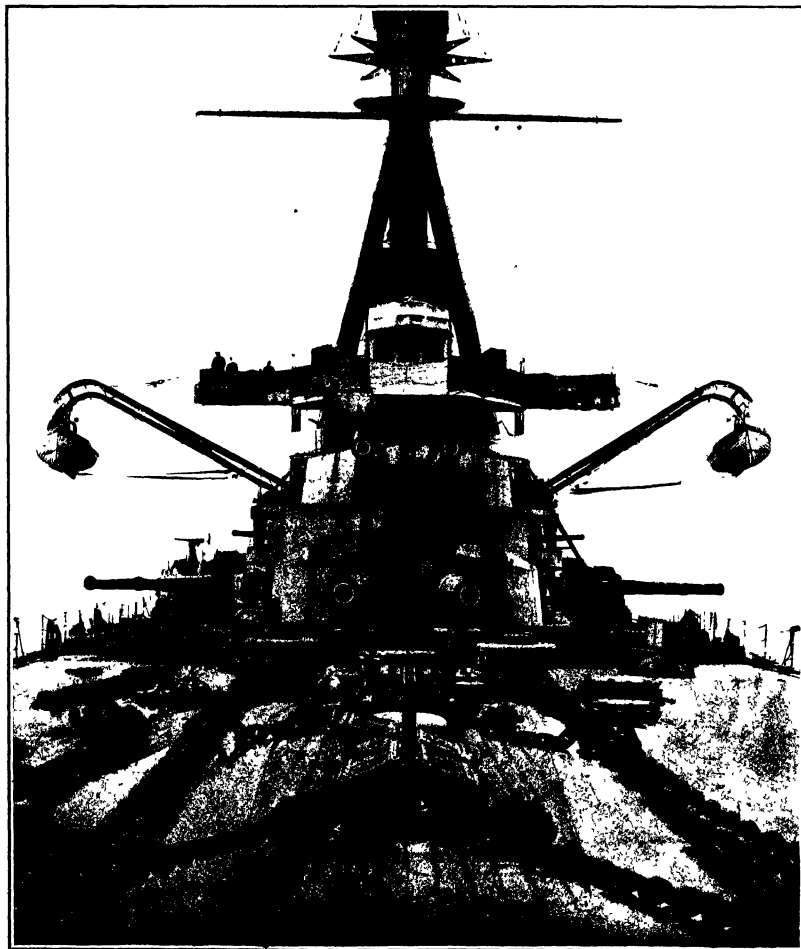
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A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS

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NEW YORK, MARCH 19, 1910

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This view is taken at the bow looking aft. It shows eight 12-inch and four 4.7 inch guns trained directly ahead. This is the first ship to carry twelve 12-inch guns and she is the most powerful vessel in commission at the present time.

THE MIGHTY ARMAMENT OF THE NEW BRAZILIAN DREADNOUGHT "MINAS GERAES."—[See page 240.]

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## A TRIUMPH OF MODERN STEAM ENGINEERING

AMONG the many brilliant successes of the steam turbine, the most important is the result which has been obtained at the Fifty-ninth Street power house, which operates the heavy service of the New York Subway. Here by the introduction of a low pressure turbine between the low pressure cylinder exhaust and the condenser not only has the output of the present reciprocating engine been doubled, but there has been made possible an increase of nearly 100 per cent in the economic capacity of the whole plant.

In a recent issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN we gave a preliminary statement of the truly remarkable work which is being done at this station. At that time one of the turbines was in place and the tests had not been carried to full completion. In the interim, more complete data have been secured, and at the last meeting of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers a paper was given by H. G. Swift, Superintendent of Motive Power of the Interborough Company, and T. H. Pigott, in which a very complete statement of the installation and its results was made public.

During 1908 it became apparent that the rapidly increasing traffic in the Subway would render it necessary to provide additional power for the winter of 1909-1910. The main power plant consisted of five 7,500-horsepower (maximum rating) compound Corliss engines and three 1,250-kilowatt turbine units for lighting and signal purposes. Of these engines and generator units the authors of the paper say: "In general they are the most satisfactory large units ever built, as five years' experience with them has proved."

In considering the problem of securing an additional supply of power rapidly, transmission of power from a hydraulic plant was rejected because of the high cost of a double transmission line from the near east available water power and the impossibility of getting reliable service.

The gas engine, it will surprise many of our readers to learn while offering the highest thermodynamic efficiency would have cost at least 15 per cent more than an ordinary steam turbine, and its maintenance and operation account would have been from four to ten times greater.

The alternative of building more reciprocating engines of the type already installed was rejected (in spite of their most satisfactory performance) because of the high first cost and the small range of economical operation (between 7,000 and 8,500 kilowatts). The water rate, rising in capacity of the combined engine and turbine, was found that by combining a low pressure turbine with the present engine at least 100 per cent higher output could be secured with a high pressure turbine unit alone, and it was finally decided to place an order for one 7,500-kilowatt (maximum rating) turbine unit, which in this case the company would not only get an increase of 100 per cent in capacity of the combined engine and turbine, but at the same time give the engine a new lease of life by bringing them up to a thermal efficiency higher than that obtained by any other type of steam plant.

The net results obtained with this first installation are summarized as follows. An increase of 100 per cent in maximum capacity of plant, an increase of 146 per cent in capacity of the combined plant, a saving of approximately 85 per cent of the condensed steam for return to the boilers, an average improvement in economy of 15 per cent over

the best high pressure turbine results, an average improvement in economy of 25 per cent (between the limits of 7,000 kilowatts and 15,000 kilowatts) over the results obtained by the engine units alone, and lastly, an average unit thermal efficiency between the limits of 6,500 kilowatts and 15,000 kilowatts of 50.6 per cent.

These results are surely entitled to be considered as constituting the first true turbine unit of the greatest triumphs of modern steam engineering.

## AN AMERICAN OBSTACLE

KEY WEST, by virtue of its geographical position stands in the same strategic relation to the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea as does Gibraltar to the Mediterranean, and its naval and military importance, which have always been recognized have been greatly increased by the results of the late Spanish war and the construction by the United States government of the Panama Canal. The transformation of Key West into a great naval and military station which shall rival in importance the fortress of Gibraltar is advocated at considerable length in an article by Commander W. H. Fleet, U. S. N., Commander of the 8th Naval District, which appears in the March number of the Journal of the Military Service Institution. The first part of the Commander's paper is devoted to an urgent plea for the more complete cooperation of the army and navy forces. The army and navy should be as intimately connected as are the navy and the marine corps, and this connection should include, as far as possible, both the personnel and the material. Guns and ammunition should be of the same general type, with the latter interchangeable and supplies and stores should all be of one standard. It is admitted that the relations between the army and navy would be subject to certain limitations, but the Commander urges that it is essential that the coast artillery corps and the navy should be intimately associated for the efficient defense of our seaboard. The Commander definitely assigned portion of the navy to act as Navy-Coast-Defenders, and in this class should be included second-class battleships or older battleships, the fleet gunboats, the gunboats, the torpedo boats, and tugs. "Their cooperation in the defense of any particular naval base should be definitely arranged in time of peace and they should maneuver and drill together, under the command of the senior officer of the coast defense service, whether he be an army or a navy officer."

In his proposal to make of Key West an impregnable Gibraltar, it is pointed out that the present defenses at Fort Taylor are inadequate for the reason that battleships can lie at the entrance buoy seven miles south of Fort Taylor, beyond the range of the 12-inch rifle mortar guns of the coast defense plant without being exposed to any danger. The remaining velocities of projectiles from the direct firing 16-inch and 12-inch guns being insufficient to penetrate the armor of any battleship, whereas the same caliber guns on a battleship could easily destroy the fort and completely destroy it.

This consideration brings the Commander to his novel proposal for rendering Key West impregnable. He points out that in place of high hills or a volcanic rock as at Gibraltar, for the mounting of coast defense guns, Key West Harbor, twenty-five miles in length, is sheltered on the north by a line of low reefs and shoals which form a complete barrier to the tide, while seven miles to the south of this line there is a parallel line of eastern shoals, some of which are scarcely washed at low tide and some more than eight feet above high water. To his fortification of these reefs would be no costly that it could scarcely be considered, but Commander Beecher proposes to take our monitors and older battleships which have passed their period of usefulness on the high seas, mount them in selected positions upon these reefs, and utilize them as permanent turret forts. Thus, for instance, selecting the shoal known as Rock Key, where there is a small natural harbor, he would install the old monitor "Amphitrite" by the removal of her propelling engines, haul her into the harbor, build around the vessel a dyke of piling, rock, and riprap, and thus make a defense work that he estimates at the cost of the ship with material hydraulically dredged and deposited. He estimates that the work would not cost more than \$50,000, and he claims that the sea-level defense would thus be increased by a double turret fort containing four 10-inch breech-loading rifles and provided with admirable protection. The vital of the fort, that is the ammunition room, turret turning gear, etc., would be protected not only by the armor of the ship but also many feet of the (including earth and riprap). The deck of the monitor would be about eight feet above mean low water, and the riprap would be carried up the sloping face of the dyke, leaving only the turrets and superstructure exposed.

The ship as thus imbedded would furnish, says the Commander, a complete, modern double-turret fort,

with every necessary feature to operate the guns, and with quarters for the officers and men of the garrison, and moreover, the entire cost of the installation would be less than the cost of building a ship in the navy for one year. The monitors "Mastomachus," "Terror," and "Puritan" could be installed upon the adjacent reefs, and the range of the sixteen 16-inch and 12-inch guns of these forts would command a large area of the Straits of Florida, and especially that part which is used by westbound vessels entering the Gulf of Mexico which navigate close to the Florida reefs to avoid the strong current of the Gulf Stream, and the fact is mentioned that the dyke would be extended in each case to form a small harbor of refuge for torpedo boats and submarines. Referring to the proposed island fortifications for the defense of the entrance to the Chesapeake, it is suggested that it would be a great economy if one of our old battleships such as the "Oregon" were used as a central point about which the island could be built.

Now, it is a question of great interest and of unquestionable moment, whether this very novel proposal of the Commander does not provide an opportunity to greatly lighten the useful life of the battleship. In view of their enormous and rapidly growing first cost the rapidly with which these instruments of war depreciate in military value is something altogether new in the history of armament. It is plain that the first line of battle, in ten years time they are becoming obsolete, and in fifteen years' time they must be relegated to the limited role of coast defense. The depreciation is not in the guns and armor but in the motive power, speed, and coal capacity. Many of these obsolete ships, because of their powerful armor and armament, would be perfectly well able to stand up in the first fighting line, if they only possessed the requisite speed and maneuvering quality, and if it should be found practicable to utilize them in the way suggested by Commander Beecher, their powerful guns and heavy protection would render them most formidable when mounted as part of the permanent fortifications of our sea-coast defenses. This suggestion is certain to excite a widespread interest, and we commend it for discussion to our readers, who will doubtless be growing circle of our readers who follow closely the development of naval and military material.

## PAULMAN'S FLIGHT EXAS NEW YORK

VIATOR LOUIS PAULMAN succeeded last week in setting the bond which he is required to put up in order to fly over the city of New York, \$5,000 for one week, and on Friday, March 11th, he made two exhibition flights at the race track near Jamaica, L. I., before some 300 invited guests. William Wright, his lawyers were Paulman's spectators as he was about to start. Paulman would attempt to fly with his vertical rudder tied or else without using the stabilizing fins or ailerons. There was an 8 to 10-mile breeze blowing, and by starting against the wind Paulman left the ground after a run of about 75 feet. He rose rapidly, and in the course of two circuits of the track, made in 2:44, he reached a height of 75 to 100 feet. The biplane flew well and was not affected appreciably by the wind. Despite the sharp turns the machine did not wobble much in making them. It appeared to rock and pitch slightly, but was always under perfect control. The descent was as complete as the ascent, and of about 20 degrees. M. Paulman made two more circuits in 2 minutes and 38 seconds.

## REQUIREMENTS FOR THE INTERNATIONAL AMERICAN TROPHY FOR 1910.

THE third annual competition for the handsome trophy given in 1907 to the Aero Club of the Americas by the United States Government, the AMERICAN is now open to all aviators. As aviation has at last reached a stage where cross-country flights of a considerable distance are being made, it has been decided to award the trophy for 1910 to the aviator who makes the longest cross-country flight in excess of 50 miles, which has been fixed as the minimum distance. A roundly flight of 35 miles each way will also tally for the trophy. The flight may be made at any point in the United States that is convenient for the aviator, who must notify the Aero Club of America or the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN a sufficient time in advance to enable the club to send a representative of the club to officially observe it. The competition is international, and foreign aviators are invited to compete for the trophy whenever occasion allows.

The dates of the international balloon and aeroplane races for the Bennett trophies have been fixed by the Aero Club of America. The balloon race will be held at St. Louis, Mo., on a date yet to be named, and the aeroplane race will be held at the same place (probably) on October 22nd. Plans are also on foot to hold a very important race in San Antonio, Texas, in April, at Atlantic City, N. J., in July, and at St. Louis in October.

## ENGINEERING.

**The United States Army** has recently adopted a new type of machine gun which can be carried by one man, while two such guns with the required stocks and ammunition can be packed upon a mule. The new weapon can be fired from the shoulder. The barrels are carried in duplicate, and can be rapidly changed when they become heated from continuous firing.

In a recent communication to Flight on the relative military value of aeroplanes and airships, Col. Capper of the British army believes that the improved aeroplane will have the advantage of airships. He predicts that the future aeroplane will be able to ascend to heights of 10,000 feet and over, from which it will swoop down and destroy the more slowly moving dirigibles below.

**The New Haven Railroad** has proposed to the city of Boston to enter into the joint construction of a tunnel between the North and South stations in that city. They offer to spend \$18,000,000 on the construction of the tunnel which is to be electrically operated, provided the city will bear the expense of \$10,000,000, which it is estimated will be the cost of the purchase of the necessary land.

One of the most remarkable features of the New York Public Library, now under erecting commission, will be the huge stack room, 90 feet wide, 300 feet long and 60 feet in height, containing seven tiers of stacks. The metal work of the stacks alone weighs about 3,000 tons, and recently winning for the painting contract it was found that nearly to pass over the multitudinous masses of stacks it would be necessary to cover seven miles of distance.

The last annual report on the shooting in the British navy shows that the percentage of hits in rounds fired during 1909 was 64.7. In 1905 it was 50.2, in 1906, 54.0, in 1907, 58.1, and in 1908, 58.2. The significance of these figures is that the percentage of hits in 1907 the size of the target was greatly reduced, the number of hits in that year being consequently only slightly greater than in the year preceding.

The placing of a large order by the Admiralty for liquid fuel has led to exaggerated statements in the London Express to the effect that the British navy contemplates the practically exclusive use of oil fuel. There is no truth in these statements, which, if true, would mean that all the fuel will be carried in future battleships as an auxiliary to coal and oil will continue to be used as fuel in certain classes of torpedo boats. Great Britain possesses a large quantity of oil, and would warrant a drastic change of this character.

A general scheme for constructing a north break water to the entrance of the Panama Canal has been approved, and the preparatory work is being done. The breakwater will protect shipping in the harbor at Colon, and will shelter vessels which are making the north entrance to the canal from the violent "norther" which prevails from October to January. There will be two jetties of rock, which will extend from Toro and Manzanillo points until they reach depths of water of 45 and 44 feet, respectively.

Some invidious statements were made recently by Representative Rainey about the new 14-inch coast defense gun, which is undergoing test at Sandy Hook. In the course of which he spoke of the gun as having "burst" on trial. As a matter of fact, the gun has shown excellent results, and given much satisfaction to the army men. The accident, which was a trivial one, consisted in the breaking of a part of the mechanism of the disappearing carriage, which delayed the tests only a few days, and was quickly made good.

It is now officially stated by the Pennsylvania Railroad Company that the four tubes under the Great River and the electric service as far as Jamaica will be placed in operation on May 15th. The trains will run under a five-mile tunnel from the new tunnel at Thirty-third Street to Jamaica without a stop, in 15 minutes. The main yard, station, and office on Long Island will be built at Jamaica, where \$10,000,000 will be expended for this purpose. The tunnels to New Jersey will be in operation by July 1st, and the lines along the north shore to Great Neck early in January, 1911.

**Long-Island Engineering** Mr. A. C. Swinton describes a model steam-powered, steam-driven, and C. C. Parsons of turbine fans, which made successful tests in 1909, thus satisfying the Langley aerodynamic tests. The boiler, 3½ inches in diameter, supplied steam to a cylinder 1½ by 3 inches, the total weight of engine, propeller, and water being 1½ pounds. The aeroplanes consisted of two wings and a tail built of a silk-covered, cane framework, the whole apparatus with engine weighing 3½ pounds. The model made several flights of about 100 yards distance, coming down when the steam pressure was exhausted. The boiler, which carried 65 pounds, was heated by a spirit lamp.

## ELECTRICITY.

In an article in *La Revue Electrique*, on the effect of high temperature on insulating materials used in dynamoelectric machinery it was pointed out that cotton does not show any signs when exposed to temperatures below 105 deg. C. but that at 115 deg. C. it begins to deteriorate and above 125 degrees it rapidly disintegrates.

The expectation for efficiency of the New York telephone service has spread all over the world. In Paris the service has been so poor of late that the subscribers have organized to demand improvement. Quite recently the Ministere des Postes et des Telegraphes of France applied to the Vice-president of the New York Telephone Company, asking if he would be willing to train six telephone officials from Paris in the various methods employed in New York. The request was gladly accepted.

An office was recently opened in Chicago by the Telephone Company which employs the Delany rapid telegraph system. As described some years ago in the *Scientific American*, a perforated paper tape is used, by which the signals are transmitted over the line at high speed. To avoid the overlapping of successive signals because of the line capacity, each signal is made up of a positive impulse followed by a negative impulse. At the receiving station the message is recorded on a chemically prepared tape.

A recent number of the *Electric Railway Journal* describes briefly a peculiar electric locomotive used for canal haulage near Bremen. The locomotive runs on a quay, which has to be kept clear for the passage of drays. In order to secure the requisite weight for adhesion, the locomotive is built in the form of two inverted U's connected at the top with a girder. The entire base is only 24 inches high, so the drying motor had to be placed in the upper part of the structure. The locomotive thus straddles the tracks and can travel up and down the quay without disturbing the trucks, which pass between the U's and under the connecting girder.

A special type of motor has been built for a British powder factory in which precautions have been taken to render the motor flame proof and explosion proof. The motor base is very strong, built, so that it will stand explosion of dust or gases which might find their way into it. The joints of the motor case are packed with hemp rope dipped in tar, this being cut in several places, thereby forming a high temperature. The bearings are also specially packed to prevent the escape of hot gas in case of explosion within the motor. No ventilation for the interior of the motor has been provided, but the casing is furnished with corrugations which furnish a large cooling surface.

In the discussion which followed the reading of a paper on underground conduit construction for large transmission systems before the American Institute of Electrical Engineers in Chicago the following illustration was given to point out the advantages of concrete over the because of its lower thermal resistance and its better heat resistance. A burnout occurred in a 100,000 circular mil 230-volt cable in the middle of a 9-foot outlet from a manhole. On examination it was found that the conductor had been completely consumed, but the concrete was burned to only a quarter of an inch while the cable in the duct above and below showed not the slightest injury. Had tile been used instead of concrete, the heat developed would have been sufficient to damage the conduit very seriously.

The canal gun factory at Washington, D. C. is equipped with six cranes of 40-ton capacity on the first track, a 110-ton crane on the next track above and a 20-ton crane on the third track which is 160 feet above the ground. The first track is 100 feet long running the full length of the gun factory. The lifting pit is located at one end of the shop making it a difficult matter to call a certain crane. Accorded by an automatic system, the crane is moved on each crane with a push button for each crane located on a board close to the pit. These buttons are connected to the annunciator in the crane cab by light trolley wires strung along the web of the I-beam that supports the crane. In this way either crane can be called by pushing the button. If the crane is busy the call will show on the annunciator.

The very first day of the inauguration of letter telegrams proved the new service a great success. The call and were prompt. A great feature. The principal business was done between the large commercial centers, such as New York, Boston, Chicago, St. Louis and New Orleans. By this time the message was sent at night at the price of the ordinary wire message. At the receiving end the message is deposited in the nearest post office for delivery by the first morning mail. Thus the wires are kept as busy at night as in the daytime. As the day can be called in fifty words, so that quite a lengthy message can now be sent to distant points in less time and cost than formerly.

## SCIENCE.

On March 8th Venus suddenly became active again. There was a continuous eruption for twenty-four hours and the stone Heracles, as it is called by internal detonations. Several flames issued, from which gas and lava emerged in great quantities.

**Prof. Wilhelm Trabert** has been appointed director of the Central Institute for Meteorology and Geodynamics at Vienna, succeeding the late Prof. Josef Maria Pernter. As director of this institution he is the official head of meteorology in Austria.

**Dr. Felix Eber** of Vienna has completed the great treatise on meteorological optics begun by the late Prof. J. M. Pernter in 1902, about two-thirds of which had been published up to the time of his death in 1908. It is the only extensive modern work on this subject.

The commission appointed to examine the Leaning Tower of Pisa has reported that it thinks the foundations may need strengthening. A spring exists under the tower, the water of which is raised by steam pumps for the use of a local factory. As the bed of the spring is emptied, it is feared, a subsidence of the ground on which the campanile stands will follow.

**Dr. Herman C. Bangs, director of the American Museum of Natural History, announces that up to last August, at least, V. Steffensen and H. M. Anderson, the museum's Arctic explorers were safe. A letter from Mr. Steffensen, dated August 1st, from the Arctic Ocean dated August 19th, 1909 has been received telling of the adventures and successes of the party.**

The lack which the American south port expedition had not been able to perform the opinion of Sir Ernest Shackleton was much harder than was generally recognized. Inasmuch as no one had ever landed in the place where the exploring party purposed to land. Indeed, no one had ever seen land there although there was an ice cliff 150 feet high which was called land. Still, Americans might find land in that locality.

**Dr. Le Faugays** recommends a process of disinfection which consists in blowing upon the contaminated surface a current of air which is very hot, being heated (600 to 800 deg. F.). This process may be applied not only within buildings, but also to the surface of streets, yards, etc. The apparatus is heated by petroleum, and the current of air is forced out by a fan. The process is very effective against germs but it is very efficacious against flies and other vermin.

**Kuhn** has devised a process for the manufacture of sulphuric acid based upon the employment of the ultraviolet rays emitted by mercury vapor lamps. A mixture of air and sulphur is fed into a tower, into a lower, lined with lead, into which water is injected in fine jets. Under the influence of the ultraviolet radiation of lamps in the tower, the sulphuric acid is entirely converted into sulphuric acid. Several towers are connected together. The strength of the sulphuric acid obtained in the first tower can be increased by spraying it instead of water, into the second tower. In like manner, the product of the second tower is sprayed into the third, and so on. In the last tower, however, pure water is again used as soon as any sulphuric acid appears in the washing gases.

**The Sappella North Polar Expedition** (Committee met recently under the Presidency of Prince Henry of Prussia, Count Zeppelin, Prof. Hildebrandt and Prof. Leald were among those present. The committee discussed the programme for the summer's work which will be carried out in the Arctic region. The purpose of studying the conditions. The government will be asked for the use of the exploring vessel "Poesidon" for about two months. The expedition will start for Svalbard in the middle of June. A Norwegian ice steamer will be used for the purpose of forcing an entrance into the polar ice and the expedition will return at the end of the summer. Apparently no ship will be taken for summer use.

For once the bacteriologists and hygienists, who usually appear to be doing in slandering folk, announce a discovery which will reassure those persons who are afraid of germs. The discovery is that they had discovered small microbes in the interior of vegetable stalks. From this discovery resulted the condemnation of sewage farms and, indeed, of all markets gardens, and the necessity of using the employment of manure. Fortunately this opinion has not been shared by all bacteriologists. In order to solve the problem which is so important from the hygienic point of view, the manager and Nouri have undertaken a series of experiments. They have endeavored, by every possible means, to infect plants with microbes. In every case however, they found it impossible to obtain colonies of microbes from the interior parts of the plants thus infected. Hence they conclude that the microbes in the soil do not penetrate into the interior of plants, but remain entirely upon the surface.

### NEW AEROPLANES AT HOME AND ABROAD

#### THE "HARRIS" NO. 2" AEROPLANE.

A noteworthy aeroplane so far as actual flying is concerned is the "Harris" No. 2 of Messrs. McCurdy and Baldwin, who are still working with Dr. Bickel near Baddeck, Nova Scotia. As our photographs show, this biplane is an excellent flyer. It has made a considerable number of more or less lengthy flights above the ice of Lake Bras d'Or, in a number of which passengers were taken.

The planes of the McCurdy and Baldwin machine are 40 feet long by 7 feet wide at the middle, decreasing to 5 feet at the ends. The wing tips which are double and attached at each end of the main planes, are about 5 by 5 feet in size. They are hinged near their front edges, and rocked in the usual manner by means of a fork fitting around the aviator's shoulders. The horizontal rudder consists of two superposed surfaces spaced 20 inches apart, and mounted 15 feet in front of the front edge of the main surfaces. The surfaces of this rudder are 12 feet by 28 inches in size. A biplane tail is also used, the planes being the same size as those which form the front rudder. This tail is mounted 11 feet from the rear edge of the main planes. The horizontal and vertical rudders are operated by a wheel in the same way as on the Curtiss biplane. In other words, a push forward or a pull backward on the wheel directs the machine downward or upward. Turning the wheel to the right or left steers the machine sideways.

The motive power of this biplane is a 6-cylinder Kirkham automobile motor of 40 horse-power. It is water cooled and develops its rated power at 1,400 R.P.M., at 3,000 R.P.M. it develops 48 horse-power.

The radiator is novel, consisting of thirty flattened tubes  $7\frac{1}{4}$  feet long by 3 inches wide by  $5/32$  inch thick. These tubes are curved from front to rear in the same manner as the main planes, and sufficient lift is obtained to support the weight of the radiator and water carried. The motor is geared to a single 7-foot blinch propeller having a 6-foot pitch, by means of a chain, the ratio being 3 to 5. The thrust obtained is sufficient to drive the machine at a speed of over 40 miles an hour.

The chief features of Messrs. McCurdy and Baldwin

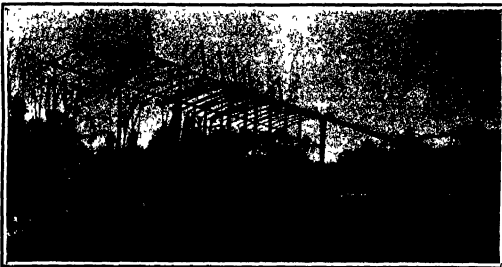
of the aeroplane. The usual three-wheel chassis, first used by the Aerial Experiment Association, of which Messrs. McCurdy and Baldwin were members, is fitted to the machine.

After making numerous satisfactory flights above the frozen surface of the lake, Messrs. Baldwin and McCurdy were visited on the 9th instant by Major Munnell of Ottawa, who represented the military department of Canada. The two inventors made five exhibition flights for this officer, and finally he consented to make a flight as passenger with Mr. McCurdy. A very satisfactory flight of several minutes' duration was made. Messrs. McCurdy and Baldwin made a number of flights last summer and fall in Canada, and the Canadian government is very much interested in their machine, and will doubtless eventually purchase one for military use. The noteworthy point about this machine is that its makers have built it sufficiently large to carry a weighty and reliable motor, and there is little doubt that the machine is capable of making extended flights without difficulty.

#### THE NEW HERRING BIPLANE.

The best constructed aeroplane on exhibition at the Boston show, as noted in previous issues of this Journal, was the new biplane of A. M. Herring. The photograph of this machine, reproduced above, was taken at the time of the trial flight on March 1st, and it gives a very good idea of the biplane's novel features. The spread of the planes is about 28 feet, and the fore-and-aft width about 4 feet, the total supporting surface being 120 square feet. A 15-horse-power Curtiss motor is mounted upon the lower plane at the rear, and carries upon its crankshaft a 4-bladed 6-foot propeller of 6-foot pitch, designed by Mr. Herring. The total

(Continued on page 236.)



The Herring biplane, showing novel stabilizing fins.

This new biplane has several new features, such as foot operation of the horizontal rudder, fin for automatic transverse stability, a wheel instead of wheels, etc.

win's biplane are the use of a comparatively heavy 6-cylinder automobile motor and the fitting to the machine of a biplane tail of the same shape and also as the horizontal rudder. The 6-cylinder motor has been found superior to the 4-cylinder for automobile work, but this is the first aeroplane, so far as we know, to be fitted with this type of motor. The motor is placed low down upon the lower plane in order to keep the center of gravity low while the propeller is mounted higher up, so that the center of thrust shall be as near as possible to the center of resistance.



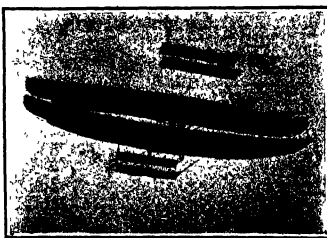
Capt. Baldwin's novel biplane.

The rudder above the upper plane is worked by a fork fitting about the aviator's shoulders. It corrects the side-slipping of the aeroplane.



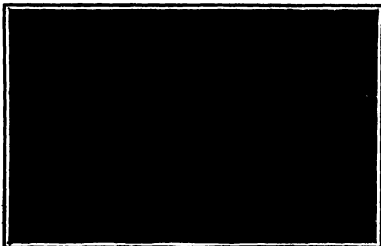
Messrs. McCurdy and Baldwin flying in their "Baddeck No. 2" biplane.

This is the first aeroplane to be equipped with a six-cylinder automobile motor. It has made many successful flights in Canada.



Rear view of Bleriot XI, its aeroplane, showing the new tail.

Note the complete covering of the body, and the large horizontal rudder at the rear end of the tail.



Sir Hiram Maxim standing behind his new biplane.

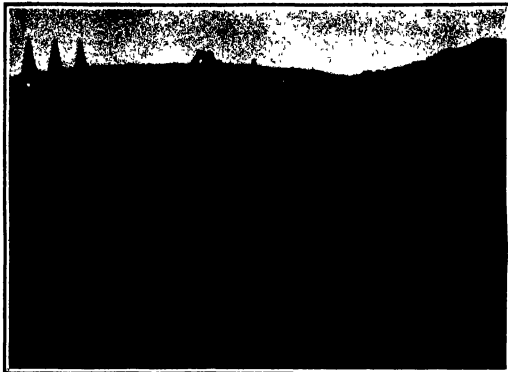
This machine is smaller in many respects to the inventor's gigantic aeroplane built nearly 20 years ago.





# BUILDING THE OLIVE BRIDGE DAM FOR THE CATSKILL WATER SUP- PLY.

Work on the Catskill water supply, which will provide New York with five hundred million gallons of water daily, is making steady progress, as will be evident from the illustrations of this work which are herewith presented. Briefly stated, the scheme consists of the construction of a large reservoir in the Neopus watershed in the Catskills, with a storage capacity of 127 billion gallons and an aqueduct 92 1/4 miles in length for conveying the water to the New York city line. The Ashokan reservoir, as it is called, will supply the city with 550 million gallons daily in addition to the 375 million gallons now available in the reservoirs of the Croton watershed. As the future needs of the city demand it, reservoirs will



Present condition of Olive Bridge dam as viewed from north bank.

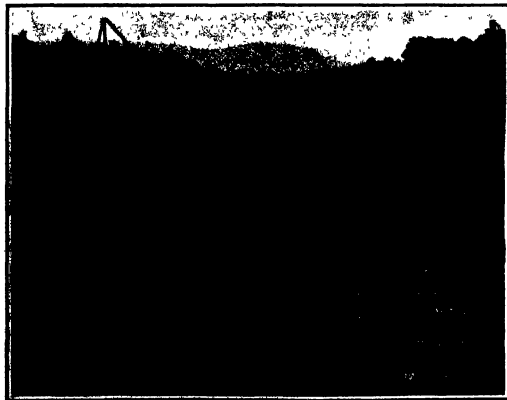
be built in the Rondout and Schoharie watersheds adjoining the Neopus Valley and from these three dams it will be possible to draw sufficient water for the full capacity of 500 million gallons daily of the new aqueduct. The latter passes through the Croton watershed and in two years time, and before the full completion of the Ashokan reservoir, a portion of the water stored therein will be available for delivery through the new aqueduct to the new Croton dam. The work is to be completed by February, 1915. The Olive Bridge dam which will create the Ashokan reservoir, is a huge structure with a maximum height from the lowest foundation of 240 feet and a width along the crest of 4,820 feet. The central portion immediately above the river is built of cyclopean masonry and extends for 1,000



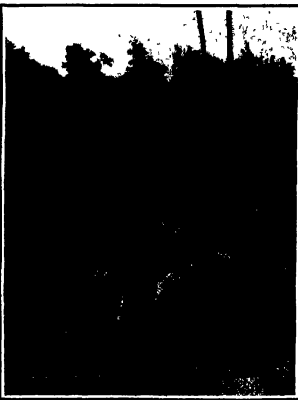
A completed section of the 92 1/4-mile steel-and-concrete aqueduct.



Upstream side of Olive Bridge dam, diversion tunnel for carrying river during construction.



Site of dam, showing the 6-foot pipes for passing river through the work.



Placing steel reinforcement for the concrete aqueduct.

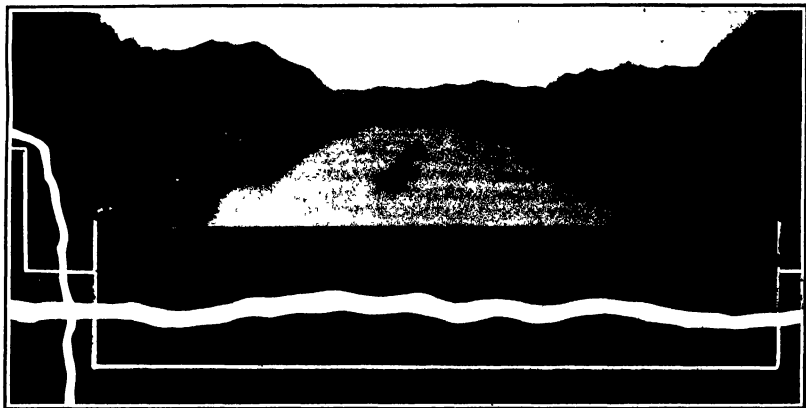
BUILDING THE OLIVE BRIDGE DAM FOR THE CATSKILL WATER SUPPLY.

feet in width. The rest of the dam consists of a central masonry core wall and carefully laid and rolled earth. In addition to the main dam there are two series of embankments known as the Beaver Kill and Husky dikes the former extending for 1,111 feet and the latter for 2,200 feet. In addition to these works there is a waste weir 1,100 feet in length and a dividing dike and weir 2,200 feet long. Taken altogether the masonry and earthworks necessary to close the valley depressions and raise the water in the dike to a height of five and one-half miles in aggregate length.

had been reached, a large culvert, 35 feet wide by 40 feet high, of sufficient size to take care of any possible floods coming down the valley, was formed in the wall of the dam. As soon as the vertical walls had been carried up a sufficient height to accommodate the river, the latter was diverted through the culvert and the 8-foot pipes were removed. Some interesting work was done in building the roof of the tunnel, a series of framed steel brackets or cantilevers being placed on each side of the opening, from which the wooden forms for the arch of the tunnel were suspended. Thus as the masonry was laid, a series of

above mean sea level. Its thickness will be 35 feet at the crest, its maximum thickness at the base about 200 feet, and the masonry work will contain 550,000 cubic yards of material. The maximum width of the earth-and-core-wall wings of the dam will be about 800 feet, their top width, about 34 feet, and the total quantity of embankment will be about 1,000,000 cubic yards. The elevation of the discharge will be 890 feet above tide level.

The Beaver Kill dike, which has a total length of about 2.2 miles, will have a maximum height of about 110 feet above the original surface, and they will con-



Cross-section of the Hudson River near Cornwall, showing how the Catskill water supply will be carried under the river in a pressure tunnel in the solid rock 1,800 feet below tide level.

The accompanying photographs, for which we are indebted to the MacArthur Brothers Company, who have contracted to build the main dams of the Ashokan reservoir for over twelve and a half million dollars serve to illustrate the character of the work. The earliest of the operations consisted in providing a bypass in the form of two 8 foot steel pipes for carrying the flow of the Neversink Creek past the dam during the work of excavation, and the construction of the masonry up to the level of the river. When this level

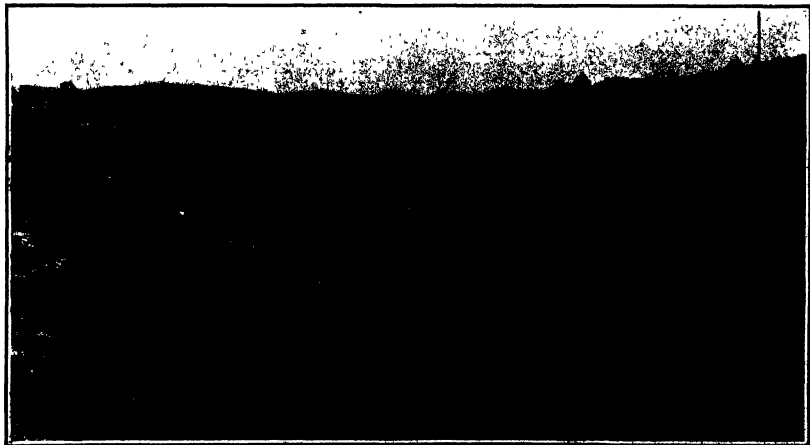
heavy steel I-beams were placed transversely to the axis of the tunnel from which the forms with their superincumbent load of masonry were suspended by vertical tie-rods. To facilitate the flow of the water, the wooden forms will be left in place until the dam is completed. Then the flow will be diverted, and the tunnel will be filled in with masonry. When this is completed, the filling of the reservoir will take place.

The top of the Olive Bridge dam will be 610 feet

tain about 5,000,000 cubic yards. Like the earthen portions of the Olive Bridge dam, they will be built with a concrete core wall. The reservoir will be divided by a dike into two basins. This dike will have a length of 1,100 feet, and the dividing weir will have the same length.

It will be readily seen from these figures that the Ashokan works are on an immense scale. They involve over 2,000,000 cubic yards of earth and 425,000

(Continued on page 239.)



Valley of the Neversink. Dam in foreground with river flowing through completed portion of temporary tunnel. BUILDING THE OLIVE BRIDGE DAM FOR THE CATSKILL WATER SUPPLY.

**Unimportant German Patent Decisions.**

A very important case was recently decided by the Supreme Court of the German Empire, First Civil Bench, in which the rights of American patentees in Germany are defined. The facts in the case are briefly these:

The National Cash Register Company of Berlin, a limited liability company incorporated under the German law, is the owner of three German patents. In Germany the patentee must work an invention within three years from the date of publication. That term had expired for all four patents. Proceedings were instituted by Schubert & Salzer Machine Works in the Imperial Patent Office to revoke these patents on the ground that they had not been worked to an adequate extent in Germany, and that in all their essential parts the cash registers produced by the patents were manufactured by the National Cash Register Company of Dayton, Ohio, and were imported from the United States into Germany. In its defense the National Cash Register Company stated that one German patent had been worked in Berlin, and that this patent was in substantial agreement with the American patent covering the identical points of invention, that the other three patents were not worked in the German Empire, but that their revocation would not serve any public interest. The Imperial Patent Office revoked all four patents, arguing that the one patent which was worked in Germany was not identical with the American patent cited by the defendant.

The National Cash Register Company appealed from the decision of the German Patent Office on the ground that the German Patent Office was in violation of the German patent alleged to be identical with the American patent was not worked in Germany, and still setting up the old defense that the revocation of the remaining three patents would be against the public interest. Pending the appeal the National Cash Register Company of Berlin changed its firm name so that it read National Registrier-Kassen-Gesellschaft mit beschränkter Haftung, four words which were assigned by this new company to the National Cash Register Company of Dayton, Ohio, so that the patents no longer belonged to a German but to an American firm. Pending the appeal, one of the patents for sale to pay the actual tax, and another patent was abandoned. There remained for consideration the validity of the German patent which was worked and which was alleged to be identical with the American patent, and another German patent which was not worked. The National Cash Register Company of Dayton, Ohio, on petition was permitted to interpret as a party to the suit in place of the patent rights.

The first question which came up before the court was whether the American company could be permitted to act as the defendant on appeal. In view of the fact that the German patent had been the defendant when the action was brought before the German Patent Office. The point depended upon an interpretation of Section 29 of the German Civil Code. The Supreme Court decided that it was not a violation of that section of the Civil Code to substitute the American company for the German company as defendant. The forfeiture of the patents involved a consideration of the treaty of February 23, 1890 between the German Empire and the United States of America relating to the mutual protection of industrial property. That treaty became a German law on August 1st, 1899, and affected the patents which had been assigned to the American company. The treaty provided in substance that the American patents of Germans and the German patents of Americans were to be restricted in their respective countries to the same extent as they are restricted by the respective laws of the country. The German patent law compels the working of patents. The German patent law compels the working of patents in the German Empire on pain of forfeiture within three years. On the other hand, there is no law in the United States to compel the working of patents. The court therefore holds that the treaty exempts American citizens from the obligation of working their German patents in Germany because German citizens are not compelled to work their American patents in the United States. Hence, because the patents for which forfeiture was demanded were the property of an American company, the decision of the German Patent Office was reversed.

As a result of this very important decision, an American citizen stands in a better position before the German courts than the American citizen. It is that a German subject. It is usually the object of a treaty to secure equal rights to the contracting parties, but in this case it would seem that a very liberal interpretation of the treaty between the American citizens probably means that they originally bargained for

light. The article is elaborately illustrated. Extracts from affidavits submitted in the case of Wright vs. Paulhan, as well as Judge Hand's decision, are given. In this decision the Furman, Blériot, and Wright. The powerful passenger and freight locomotive of the Mallet type recently built for the Atchafalaya to the Santa Fe Railway are described. W. P. Dresser's article on the artificial silk industry is continued. It is now written on Italy comes and seen from the earth. He gives a table of celestial coordinates in two decimal places at intervals of four days through an arc extending from one end to the other of the ellipse of its orbit, as well as a diagram giving the position of the earth for six days in May, also the position of the comet on twenty seven days measured from perihelion passage in days. Some novel toys are described and illustrated.

**A German Antarctic Expedition.**

A German south polar expedition has been virtually arranged by Lieut. Pflücker of the General Staff, under the auspices of the Geographical Society. Lieut. Pflücker announced at a meeting of the society that the expedition would start in October of this year if the necessary funds were forthcoming.

The plan is to send a vessel with provisions over the route followed by Lieut. Shackleton and form a depot at about the halfway point to Shackleton's winter headquarters. The regular expedition would start later from Weddell Land on the opposite side of the pole and make a dash across with the depot as objective.

Dr. Penk, chairman of the Geographical Society, announced that an anonymous donor had given \$15,000 toward defraying the cost of the expedition, and Lieut. Pflücker had promised a further \$15,000. It was hoped, he said, that they would be able to send out two vessels in order to save time.

Lieut. Pflücker is an expert of experience. He was one of the first to reach Lhasa, Tibet, and in 1903 and 1906 he explored Turkistan and Persia.

**The Life of Radium.**

An interesting and informative popular lecture upon the wonders of radium was given by Dr. Gray, one of the members of the Authors' Club in London by Sir William Ramsay, K.C.B. in describing the wonders of this element the eminent chemist confined himself mainly to a description of his own investigations and experiments. In dealing with the Alpha particles he explained that these were really gas, and quite two-thirds of the energy of radium was transferred to the gas which it emitted, which comes off at a regular rate, and this he pointed out raised the question as to how long radium would last. He replied for over, as the amount of gas was always proportional to the amount of radium present. He likened this emission of gas to taking a slice of bread and cutting it in two, each operation requiring a minute, and then cut one-half in two again, and so on continually until it was reduced to a mere scrap of bread. He showed how it took him to cut the bread entirely up. He could never do it. He would always be halving to infinity and the task would take him an eternity to perform. It is in this way that radium is reduced. The amount of gas was always proportional to the mass of radium existing and was always being produced. There was, however, he remarked, one point easily to be noted in the case of radium. He said that he had just measured it in his (Sir William's) laboratory and had found that it would take 1,750 years so that anyone who invested in radium would retain at least one-half of the cost at the end of 1,750 years. The Austrian government some time ago in treated him with about half a gramme or one fifty-fifth part of an ounce of radium for his private use. He valued it at about \$45,000. Last year Dr. Gray and himself performed the experiment of isolating the Alpha emanation of radium, and they isolated it in a fine glass tube, much finer than the one used by the chemist. He said that when they compressed it and liquefied it. In the latter step it shone with a purplish light, although it was quite transparent like water. When reduced to a temperature of -100 deg. Cent. it was reduced to a solid with an extremely brilliant light like a miniature electric arc light. The quantity they used was extremely small, being less than the point of the finest needle, yet they ascertained its boiling point, its melting point and its specific gravity.

Radium was the most concentrated form of energy known. It is a substance which goes on changing into other things to which various names have been

given. These substances were named Radium A, Radium B, Radium C and so on up to radium F. Some had a very brief existence lasting only thirty or forty minutes, and he had never seen them. It had seen radium D which would be seen in about four days. This was a substance rather dull looking like lead and that was nearly all he could say about it. There were other substances probably like polonium which Madame Curie discovered. During the emanation radium gave a great deal of energy as generally made itself as light but on a matter of fact radium kept itself hot, there was a great deal of heat generated. It could be used as a source of heat for a furnace off about 3,500,000 units as much heat as could be given off by the oxyhydrogen blowpipe, which gave a temperature of over 2,000 deg. Cent.

What did this energy do? It sent out the Alpha rays at a velocity of about 40,000 miles per second, and these particles naturally carried a great deal of energy. The Beta rays, although only about one thousandth part of the size, also carried five times as much energy owing to their enormous velocity, which exceeded that of the Alpha rays. They could decompose water and metallic substances, and in these decompositions they found elements produced which they could not imagine to exist in the substance so treated. For instance in decomposing ordinary copper sulphate they were surprised to discover lithium in what remained, and so on treated the compounds of other elements experiment five times, and the experiments were still going on.

**Elements of Bailey's Comet.**

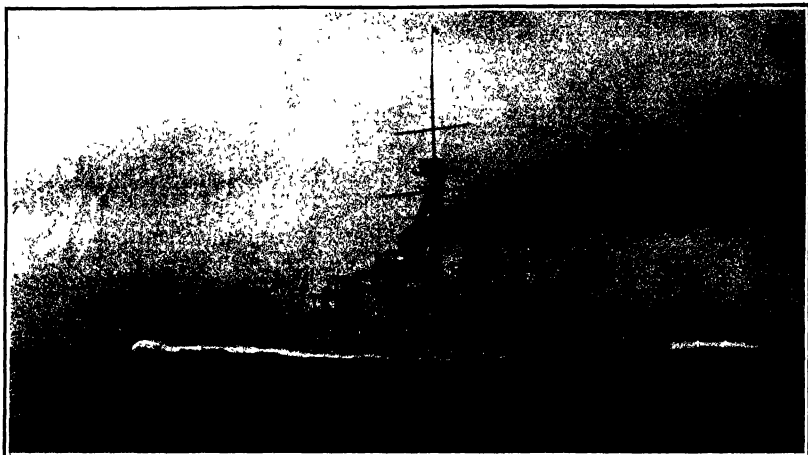
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April 8	0	13	7	0.0001	0.1916
April 12	0	28	13	0.0002	0.1688
April 16	0	44	24	0.0003	0.1459
April 20	0	59	35	0.0004	0.1230
April 24	1	14	46	0.0005	0.1001
April 28	1	29	57	0.0006	0.0772
May 2	1	44	8	0.0007	0.0543
May 6	1	59	19	0.0008	0.0314
May 10	2	14	30	0.0009	0.0085
May 14	2	29	41	0.0010	0.0000
May 18	2	44	52	0.0011	0.0000
May 22	2	59	3	0.0012	0.0000
May 26	3	14	14	0.0013	0.0000
May 30	3	29	25	0.0014	0.0000
June 3	3	44	36	0.0015	0.0000
June 7	3	59	47	0.0016	0.0000
June 11	4	14	58	0.0017	0.0000
June 15	4	29	9	0.0018	0.0000
June 19	4	44	20	0.0019	0.0000
June 23	4	59	31	0.0020	0.0000
June 27	5	14	42	0.0021	0.0000
July 1	5	29	53	0.0022	0.0000
July 5	5	44	4	0.0023	0.0000
July 9	5	59	15	0.0024	0.0000
July 13	6	14	26	0.0025	0.0000
July 17	6	29	37	0.0026	0.0000
July 21	6	44	48	0.0027	0.0000
July 25	6	59	59	0.0028	0.0000
July 29	7	14	10	0.0029	0.0000
Aug 2	7	29	21	0.0030	0.0000
Aug 6	7	44	32	0.0031	0.0000
Aug 10	7	59	43	0.0032	0.0000
Aug 14	8	14	54	0.0033	0.0000
Aug 18	8	29	5	0.0034	0.0000
Aug 22	8	44	16	0.0035	0.0000
Aug 26	8	59	27	0.0036	0.0000
Aug 30	9	14	38	0.0037	0.0000
Sept 3	9	29	49	0.0038	0.0000
Sept 7	9	44	60	0.0039	0.0000
Sept 11	9	59	1	0.0040	0.0000
Sept 15	10	14	12	0.0041	0.0000
Sept 19	10	29	23	0.0042	0.0000
Sept 23	10	44	34	0.0043	0.0000
Sept 27	10	59	45	0.0044	0.0000
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Oct 5	11	29	7	0.0046	0.0000
Oct 9	11	44	18	0.0047	0.0000
Oct 13	11	59	29	0.0048	0.0000
Oct 17	12	14	40	0.0049	0.0000
Oct 21	12	29	51	0.0050	0.0000
Oct 25	12	44	2	0.0051	0.0000
Oct 29	12	59	13	0.0052	0.0000
Nov 2	13	14	24	0.0053	0.0000
Nov 6	13	29	35	0.0054	0.0000
Nov 10	13	44	46	0.0055	0.0000
Nov 14	13	59	57	0.0056	0.0000
Nov 18	14	14	8	0.0057	0.0000
Nov 22	14	29	19	0.0058	0.0000
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Dec 8	15	29	3	0.0062	0.0000
Dec 12	15	44	14	0.0063	0.0000
Dec 16	15	59	25	0.0064	0.0000
Dec 20	16	14	36	0.0065	0.0000
Dec 24	16	29	47	0.0066	0.0000
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Jan 1	16	59	9	0.0068	0.0000
Jan 5	17	14	20	0.0069	0.0000
Jan 9	17	29	31	0.0070	0.0000
Jan 13	17	44	42	0.0071	0.0000
Jan 17	17	59	53	0.0072	0.0000
Jan 21	18	14	4	0.0073	0.0000
Jan 25	18	29	15	0.0074	0.0000
Jan 29	18	44	26	0.0075	0.0000
Feb 2	18	59	37	0.0076	0.0000
Feb 6	19	14	48	0.0077	0.0000
Feb 10	19	29	59	0.0078	0.0000
Feb 14	19	44	10	0.0079	0.0000
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Feb 22	20	14	32	0.0081	0.0000
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Feb 30	20	44	54	0.0083	0.0000
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Mar 15	21	29	27	0.0086	0.0000
Mar 20	21	44	38	0.0087	0.0000
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Apr 9	22	44	12	0.0091	0.0000
Apr 14	22	59	23	0.0092	0.0000
Apr 19	23	14	34	0.0093	0.0000
Apr 24	23	29	45	0.0094	0.0000
Apr 29	23	44	56	0.0095	0.0000
May 4	23	59	7	0.0096	0.0000
May 9	24	14	18	0.0097	0.0000
May 14	24	29	29	0.0098	0.0000
May 19	24	44	40	0.0099	0.0000
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May 29	25	14	2	0.0101	0.0000
Jun 3	25	29	13	0.0102	0.0000
Jun 8	25	44	24	0.0103	0.0000
Jun 13	25	59	35	0.0104	0.0000
Jun 18	26	14	46	0.0105	0.0000
Jun 23	26	29	57	0.0106	0.0000
Jun 28	26	44	8	0.0107	0.0000
Jul 3	26	59	19	0.0108	0.0000
Jul 8	27	14	30	0.0109	0.0000
Jul 13	27	29	41	0.0110	0.0000
Jul 18	27	44	52	0.0111	0.0000
Jul 23	27	59	3	0.0112	0.0000
Jul 28	28	14	14	0.0113	0.0000
Aug 2	28	29	25	0.0114	0.0000
Aug 7	28	44	36	0.0115	0.0000
Aug 12	28	59	47	0.0116	0.0000
Aug 17	29	14	58	0.0117	0.0000
Aug 22	29	29	9	0.0118	0.0000
Aug 27	29	44	20	0.0119	0.0000
Sep 1	29	59	31	0.0120	0.0000
Sep 6	30	14	42	0.0121	0.0000
Sep 11	30	29	53	0.0122	0.0000
Sep 16	30	44	4	0.0123	0.0000
Sep 21	30	59	15	0.0124	0.0000
Sep 26	31	14	26	0.0125	0.0000
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Oct 11	32	59	59	0.0128	0.0000
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Nov 10	33	29	5	0.0134	0.0000
Nov 15	33	44	16	0.0135	0.0000
Nov 20	33	59	27	0.0136	0.0000
Nov 25	34	14	38	0.0137	0.0000
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Dec 5	34	44	60	0.0139	0.0000
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Dec 30	35	59	45	0.0144	0.0000
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Jan 19	36	59	29	0.0148	0.0000
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Jan 29	37	29	51	0.0150	0.0000
Feb 3	37	44	2	0.0151	0.0000
Feb 8	37	59	13	0.0152	0.0000
Feb 13	38	14	24	0.0153	0.0000
Feb 18	38	29	35	0.0154	0.0000
Feb 23	38	44	46	0.0155	0.0000
Feb 28	38	59	57	0.0156	0.0000
Mar 5	39	14	8	0.0157	0.0000
Mar 10	39	29	19	0.0158	0.0000
Mar 15	39	44	30	0.0159	0.0000
Mar 20	39	59	41	0.0160	0.0000
Mar 25	40	14	52	0.0161	0.0000

**THE BRAZILIAN BATTLESHIP "MINAS GERAES"**

In the early part of this year the first of the dreadnought battleships the "Minas Geraes" about which much speculation has been rife, was handed over by the builders, Sir W. G. Armstrong, Whitworth & Co

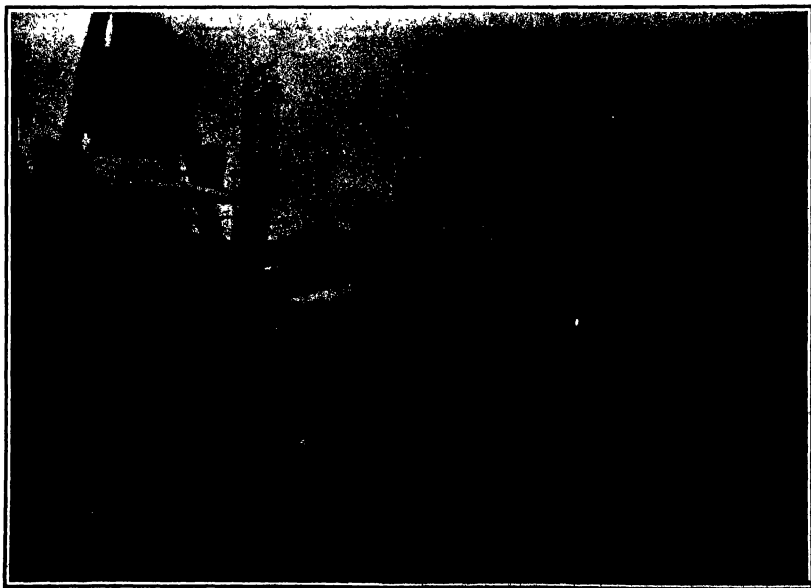
of Elswick, Newcastle-on-Tyne, to the Brazilian government thus definitely disposing of the supposition that the vessel was designed for some other power. This vessel has been the source of considerable discussion, since it represents the last word in heavy bat-

tleship design, and is at present the most powerfully armed warship afloat. Through the courtesy of Admiral Maury, the president of the Brazilian naval commission in England, appointed by the government of the South American state to supervise construction,



Length, 561 feet. Breadth, 66 feet. Normal displacement, 13,000 tons. Horse-power, 27,000. Speed, 21.4 knots. Armour: Belt, 8-inch, extending for full height of hull; turret, 8-inch; two protective decks, 14 inch and 8 inch. Armament: Twelve 16-inch 50-cal. twenty-two 4.7-inch. Four torpedo tubes.

THE BRAZILIAN DREADNOUGHT "MINAS GERAES."



During the gun trials of the "Minas Geraes" ten 16-inch guns were trained on the broadside and discharged simultaneously. The combined energy of the projectiles amounted to 500,000 foot-tons, or sufficient to lift the ship bodily 26 feet into the air.

THE GREATEST BROADSIDE EVER FIRED FROM A BATTLESHIP.



## BIRDS AS MECHANISMS

BY E. S. MERRILL.

The casual observer knows the bird as he knows the tree the stone or the sea shell—an incidental object of passing interest, one of the trivial details in his everyday life. The novice bird student knows the birds, few or many, by the clothes they wear so to speak. If somewhat silent, he may even recognize birds by flight and song. Even the more profound ornithologist classifies birds by external character—largely bill, feet, length of wing and tail, number of feathers in each, etc. It is he of necessity a specialist paying particular attention to classification primarily of the study of plumage, ornithological nomenclature or some one of the subdivisions of the general study of birds. Few individuals among any of the classes of students mentioned sufficiently appreciate the bird as a mechanism designed to play a certain part, every member like every detail of some complicated and perfect machine contributing toward perfecting the whole for its requirements.

Considering the bird from this standpoint and analyzing the parts with a view to their functions it seems natural to commence with the bill because it is the anterior extremity and because of the importance of its uses. This one feature of a bird's mechanism merits treatment in an article especially devoted to it and has, in fact received such treatment.\* It can be briefly reviewed only here. The bill not only performs the functions of a mouth in birds, but also serves as a hand. Having none at all on the posterior limbs, and only unsatisfactory substitutes on the anterior ones, birds must needs use the bill largely in lieu of a hand, and do so to a very considerable degree.

As has been shown, the bill largely conforms in shape to the requirements of the more important functions that it must perform, and exhibits a very wide range of variety in size and shape. It is used for cutting, tearing, and chewing food of various sorts, and for seizing, spearing, or crushing prey. It is also used to dress the plumage, and by some species, such as parrots, to assist in climbing.

Birds' skulls, having a less diverse range of functions than the bills show a correspondingly smaller degree of differentiation, but they do vary to some extent according to the habits and particularly according to the orders. In the lower types, such as arboreal and some, and most of the sea birds, the brain cavity is relatively small, but proportionately larger in the higher types, such as the thrushes. Including the robin.

The vertebral portion of the skeleton plainly indicates the birds' descent from ancestral stock common with that of reptiles. Modern birds bring to longer provided with reptile-like scales, as was the case with the earliest types (the archosaurs had twenty caudal vertebrae the bony structure of a long lizard like tail, each vertebra supporting a long feather on either side) the number of caudal vertebrae has become reduced to usually nine and these are short and with little apparent function, other than to support the feathers of the tail. Unlike the lizard, the bird's tail.

The bony structure of the wings is an adaptation of the bones of fore limbs to the requirements of flight. In evolutionary history this adaptation was principally accomplished in the lizard-like progenitors of birds and the modifications since then are not remarkable. The main arm bone the humerus and the secondary ones the ulna and radius are not very different

from the corresponding bones in mammals. In the hand, however, the first and fifth fingers have disappeared, the index and third digits are small and scarcely functional, while the middle finger is greatly developed and furnishes the real bony support for the tip of the wing.

Wings for the great majority of birds are solely organs of flight, in a few species such as the ostrich they are rudimentary and functionless serving at best only to preserve symmetry. In such species as penguins, however, while useless for flight, they are valuable as flippers or paddles, assisting progress through the water. In a very few cases they are used to assist the bird in climbing usually largely while immature, as in the hoatzin of South America.

Next to the bills and wings the feet of birds are perhaps of the greatest functional importance. Feet and legs vary greatly, according to the usage for which they are designed. In the ostrich, which must nearly resemble in its mode of life some wild horse, the development of feet and legs is strikingly like that of the feet and legs of such animals. Birds like

the birds than the skeletal structure. The more important muscles are peculiarly designed to render the greatest efficiency. The powerful muscles that operate the wings have their anchorage on the keel of the breastbone, and the latter is particularly deeply developed in birds of most powerful flight. This is true alike of the powered wing bird, and its immature, and of the humming bird with its relatively small wings, driven at lightning speed to keep the bird poised before a flower.

In all of the passerine or perching birds, the muscle and tendon arrangement of feet and legs is such that the weight of the body resting on and contracting the legs draws the muscle over the main joint, and draws up on the ends of the toes, holding their tips on the perch. The same principle drives the talons of the hawks and owls into their prey.

Tongues in birds are also highly functional. In woodpeckers they are practically barbed structures, and the extreme protrusion that they are subject to is provided for by roots that extend around the back of the head and close up to the eye-sockets. In the humming bird the tongue is a pump for obtaining the nectar from flowers. In some species it is brush-like, to facilitate handling the food, and in certain fish-eating species the upper surface of the tongue is covered with points inclined backward, to facilitate swallowing the slippery prey.

The eyes of birds, designed to see at night, are wonderful structures. Only a small portion of the entire eye-ball is visible. Each socket occupies nearly a third of the total skull space. The visible eye-ball is mounted on a thin bone frame, somewhat resembling a lamp-shade in shape. A structure differing radically from the type of bird's eye.

The feathers covering of birds is especially adapted to their requirements. It is light often, the least weight is carried in flight, and a poor conductor of heat and cold, affording the bird the best protection in the sudden temperature changes to which it is subjected. In birds like the penguin it is more like the hair of seals than normal feathers and is thoroughly waterproof. The feathers of ducks and water fowl generally are also practically waterproof. The power of flight is quite dependent on the feathers, both of wing and tail which in action are spread to give the greatest supporting area for air pressure to act upon.

As a complete mechanism, so perfectly do all its parts contribute to an absolutely smooth-working whole, to the bird, that the very wonder of this intricate machine passes unnoticed as a common-place incident.

Metal filament lamps generally are supposed to be of a pretty frail nature, so that the slightest touch breaks them. This idea is counteracted by an account given in the Electrical World of a collision between a Pennsylvania seaboard passenger train and an empty engine just outside Jersey City on the morning of November 8th. This accident resulted in comparatively few injuries to the passengers, due to the fact that the strong frame of the passenger cars resisted crushing. The damage to engines and cars, however was considerable. One of the steel passenger coaches jumped the track and turned over on its side, denting in the steel plates about 18 inches. Included in the lighting equipment of this car were nine tungsten lamps, and it is interesting to note that, after the wreck these lamps were found to be in perfect condition.



L. The bill of a penguin. M. The upper extremity of a bird's bill. N. A hawk's talon. O. A long, slender leg of a bird. P. A foot of a bird. Q. A foot of a bird. R. A foot of a bird. S. A foot of a bird.

## THE BIRD AS A MECHANISM

the kingfisher and humming bird whose feet are used solely for perching have abnormally undeveloped, small, and weak looking feet and legs. In the birds of prey the feet are practically grasping hooks, designed to secure the firmest hold of the victims, the legs are heavy and strong. Birds like the herons, the storks, and cranes, who spend much time wading, have very long legs and long, slender toes, which, spreading over a wider surface, give a support analogous to that afforded by snowshoes. This feature is more strikingly illustrated in birds like the rails, that travel about on the yielding aquatic growth, and find its highest development in the hoatzin, tropical and sub-tropical birds of the rail family. Woodpeckers, creepers, and nuthatches, birds that cling a great deal to perpendicular surfaces, have very sharp claws and feet adapted to such requirements. Birds that swim a great deal have the feet webbed with a membrane extending between the toes, making very efficient paddles.

The flesh of birds is so less efficiently designed and disposed toward the fulfilling of the requirements of

\* 1902. Birds, by E. S. Merrill, American Notes and Science, July 1902, vol. 11, No. 3, pp. 65-87.

# The Home Laboratory

## EXPERIMENTS IN CRYSTALLIZATION

BY J. J. JARVIS

The making of crystals of various kinds outside a chemical works or chemical laboratory is not often practiced, because it is commonly considered that the subject is a very difficult one or that it requires a complete knowledge of chemistry. Such, however, is a mistaken idea from either standpoint. Crystals of extraordinary beauty both in geometrical form and brilliancy of color can be produced by any person determined to make the undertaking successful.

The accompanying illustration shows a group of pyramidal crystalline structures that have been formed in the national colors.

The red is made of bichromate of potash, the white of common alum, and the blue of sulphate of copper. Many salts can be employed that are very cheap, and after the crystals have been formed the solution left over can often be used. The geometrical forms of the crystals can be observed during their formation, and it is interesting to watch how they grow as the liquid deposits the excess of salt. When finished, they can be dried and preserved under a glass covering like was flowers so as to preserve them for ornament and for educational purposes.

To produce results as illustrated make a pyramid out of three pieces of wool five inches long, and a quarter of an inch square. Wind each stick with cotton twine from end to end. Lift these three strips well at the apex of the pyramid and then for the base, make a little triangle of the same sized strips each piece being two and a half inches long. Cement these firmly at the corners with the same wax, then cover every part neatly with a winding of cotton twine. Now distend the free ends of the three longer pieces, and fasten them in the base with sealing wax after which carefully cut away all the waxed parts with a knife. For a fine pyramidal block of white transparent alum crystals prepare a small quantity of concentrated alum solution made by adding powdered alum to a pint of boiling water until no more will dissolve. Dip the cotton twine covered tripod or pyramid into this solution, let it soak for a minute, then stand it in a plate of water. When cold it will be coated all over with very fine crystals of alum. This is the starting point to build up the dual crystallization. Examine the minute crystals with a magnifying glass, when it will be seen that the face of each crystal is triangular in form. The corners being sharp. No matter how small or how large the crystal may be, it always assumes the same geometrical form, for every salt crystallizes in a form according to its nature.

You are a topazium stone-water cask and a one-gallon glass battery jar. The battery jar should be eight inches high and six inches in diameter. Pour seven pints of boiling water into the stone-water cask. Add therein about five pounds of powdered alum, a few ounces at a time stirring the solution well with a clear strip of glass. As soon as the hot water will dissolve no more alum it is then saturated and must be poured into the glass battery jar, which has been previously warmed, straining the solution of alum by tying a three-fold piece of cheese cloth over the top of the jar. Now place in the battery jar a circular piece of lid about 1/2 inch deep, such as the lid of a paste jar. Set upon this lid a piece of glass four and a half inches square and upon the glass the slightly crystallized pyramid completely immersed. In the solution and weighted down with a large alum crystal or a heavy glass stopper. A small crystal of alum may also be placed upon the top of the pyramid.

All must now be left to cool gradually. Under no condition must the vessel be disturbed, because this would cause the alum to be thrown down in a few minutes in very fine crystals like common salt. At the end of twenty-four hours, the whole of the pyramid will be covered with beautifully formed crystals. At the end of forty-eight hours, the pyramid may be removed, and the alum solution must be poured, adding more ground alum to saturate the solution; pour this solution again into the battery jar and insert the pyramid with the above glass base, allow this to

stand for a week, when it will be found to have become a mass of beautiful crystals, clustering into one solid mass. The pyramid must now be removed (the glass plate also by a slight tap) a pint of clear, cold water poured over it, then stood upon folded blotting paper to drain changing the blotting paper twice daily for a week to nine days, when it will be found that the crystals will become almost transparent. The pyramid being complete it may now be covered with a suitable glass dome and it will form a unique and instructive ornament. Several sets should be made from various salts, in various colors. All of them can be carried out in precisely the same manner as described for alum.

The following salts are not expensive and will give the various colors stated. They will not become insoluble upon exposure to the atmosphere. For white, common alum and cane sugar, red potassium bichromate, yellow, yellow prussiate of potash, dark green, double sulphate of nickel and ammonia. Light green, chrome of nickel.

There are very many other salts that will give a



RED, WHITE, AND BLUE PYRAMIDAL CLUSTERS OF CRYSTALS.

great variety of colors the majority of them being deliquescent becoming moist and melting upon exposure to the atmosphere; but those enumerated here will be permanent under all ordinary conditions.

## SIMPLE METHOD OF PRODUCING THE ZEEMAN EFFECT

BY W. S. LAM

The world was startled when a few years ago, Prof. Zeeman announced that if pieces of sodium were burned between the poles of a powerful electromagnet the spectrum would show the D line much broadened while the existing current was turned on, and that the original aspect of the line would be retained as soon as the current ceased.

This statement contradicted the much-discussed theory of H. A. Lorentz who assumed that the hitherto homogeneous and indistinguishable atom of the chemical was as a matter of fact heterogeneous and composed of minute particles or vortices in the ether, each having a definite mass and possessing all the properties of negative electricity. These particles, or vortices, which are now called "electrons" are conceived as vibrating about the common center of gravity of the atom and further that light was due to transverse vibrations in the ether generated by these rapidly moving electrons. If, argued Lorentz, the atom is made up of such particles or vortices, the rate of vibration would be altered by the lines of force in a magnetic field and we should be able to predict their behavior with accuracy. Going back to two swinging pendulums for analogy, he pointed out that any mo-

tion and component number 3, in which they move against the hands of the clock. Now suppose we look at the vapor of sodium in a magnetic field and along the lines of force. Coming from the left, the light is charged, and the lines of force run straight toward you what will happen? You cannot see any effect of component number 1, since the electrons in that component are moving in the same direction as the lines of force, electrons emit waves only at right angles to the line of sight, hence to see the waves of component number 1, you would have to move your position and look at the burning sodium at right angles to the lines of force. But with components numbers 2 and 3 the conditions are very different. Here the electrons are revolving in circular orbits and in a plane at right angles to the line of sight, and since those which move with the hands of a watch are retarded, and those against the hands of a watch are accelerated, the single line seen in the spectroscopic would split into two, or as in Prof. Zeeman's case, where the spectroscopic use of small slow rate power only a broadening of line would be observed. This then, was the experiment which startled the scientific world, started it because one of the fundamental principles of science was apparently overthrown—the homogeneity of the atom of the chemist.

Notwithstanding its value and significance, the experiment is rarely witnessed because of the ponderous and costly apparatus necessary to produce the deviation of the spectral lines. Powerful gratings and magnets both exceedingly expensive have up to the present time been used in the demonstration. The writer however has a very simple piece of apparatus costing less than \$20 which shows the phenomenon admirably. No claim to originality is made save in the matter of its arrangement, which is so simple as to be well within the grasp of any intelligent boy. Instead of the powerful spectroscopic reader will observe in the accompanying photograph a little interior fromer attached to the telescope. This is a modification of Fabry's apparatus for the investigation of the Zeeman effect and the exquisite mechanical ingenuity of Prof. Pfund of Johns Hopkins University. And instead of the huge magnet used by Zeeman one weighing less than a pound will do more than suffice. The photograph shows a piece of board six inches long to which is attached a lens of three inches focus, a Biot Nicol prism which can be revolved in its large end by the rotation of the telescope and of a spring clip for holding the quarter wave plate. This apparatus is simplicity itself in always in adjustment and can be rapidly shifted to view the phenomenon along the line of sight and at right angles to it.

Instead of burning sodium let us use a tube containing bismuth gas, and place the apparatus so that we may view the light parallel to the direction of the lines of force. The light will be observed through the hole drilled in the pole piece of the magnet as seen in Fig. 1. Examine the glowing tube before the magnet is energized and you will see several concentric yellow rings in the field of the telescope.

Fix your attention upon any one of the rings which is the equivalent of the yellow line that would be seen in an ordinary spectroscopic. Turn the current into the magnet, and instantly the yellow ring splits into two. Revolve the Nicol but you cannot extinguish the rings because just as Lorentz predicted they are circularly polarized. Now introduce a quarter wave plate, the effect of which is to produce a retardation of one-half wave length. The light is now plane polarized and can be extinguished by the Nicol. Revolve the Nicol a further angle and a beautiful confirmation of Lorentz's theory. No much for components numbers 2 and 3 but component number 1 can not be seen since its electrons are moving parallel to the lines of force. Now take out the Nicol and the yellow ring is observed so as to view the light at right angles to the lines of force (Fig. 2). Turn on the current and one yellow ring is observed to break up into three. Let us analyze them bearing in mind what Lorentz said viz. That one of these lines, component number 1, was polarized lying in a horizontal plane, and that the other two, components numbers 2 and 3, were polarized in a vertical plane. These lines are looking at the edges of these circular vibrations and the effect upon us is as if the particles were actually moving vertically. Now introduce the Nicol with its short diagonal vertical, two rings appear, and with the short diagonal horizontal one ring only is observed. The formation of one of the clearest pieces of reasoning ever credited to the mind of man.

In the whole realm of physics there is nothing more

FIG. 1.—Looking in the direction of the magnetic lines.

FIG. 2.—Looking at right angles to the magnetic lines.

## APPARATUS FOR PRODUCING THE ZEEMAN EFFECT

tion to which the electron is subjected could be resolved into three components one in straight lines parallel to the lines of magnetic force, and the other two at right angles to them, but since these last two can be further resolved into two circular motions (one to the right and one to the left) around the axis parallel to the lines of force, we can say that the motion which the electrons are capable of making may be divided into component number 1 in which the electrons are moving parallel to the lines of force; component number 2, in which they move with the hands of the clock,

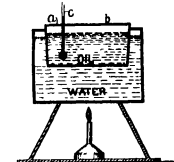
striking, more significant, and the effect which it is destined to exercise upon the future of science is simply incalculable.

#### SOME SIMPLE TESTS FOR OIL.

By RALPH P. CLARK.

There are several tests which anyone can apply without the use of special apparatus, and tell something about the grade of lubricating oil he is getting. *THE PLAIN TEST.*

Place a small amount of the oil to be tested in a



APPARATUS FOR DETERMINING THE FLASHING POINT OF OIL.

pan as indicated at *a* in the accompanying engraving, and heat by means of the lamp beneath. As the oil heats apply a match at *b*. After a time a flash is seen when the match is applied, but it disappears as rapidly as it came. This shows that enough vapor had been produced to mix with the air and form an explosive mixture. The temperature, given by thermometer *C*, at which this occurs, is called the flashing point. At some higher temperature if a match is applied, the oil takes fire. This latter temperature is known as the burning point, and may be a considerable number of degrees above the flashing point.

#### TO DETECT THE PRESENCE OF AN ALKALI.

Dissolve a small amount of sodium carbonate in an equal volume of water. Place it, together with the oil to be tested, in a flask or beaker and shake thoroughly. The quantity of precipitate will be a gauge of the amount of acid present.

#### TO DETECT THE PRESENCE OF GRIT.

Drop a small amount of the oil on white or very light-colored blotting paper. The oil will be absorbed, and the grit will be visible as small black specks on the blotter.

#### TO FIND THE TEMPERATURE AT WHICH THE OIL CONGELS.

Put 16 parts of Glauber salts into a beaker. Place in this a bottle containing a sample of the oil. Pour over the salt a mixture of 5 parts hydrochloric acid and 5 parts of cold water. The temperature is reduced slowly, and can be observed from time to time as the oil thickens. Any freezing mixture or even ice can be used in place of the above.

#### THE IONIZATION OF AIR.

SOME SIMPLE EXPERIMENTS.

The terms ions and electrons have now become familiar in the explanation of electrical phenomena. Most of the investigations upon which they are based have not been made in view, and consequently they are but little understood, except by those scientists

who have devoted their energies to their special study. There are however many simple experiments, mostly due to Right, which can be made in air at the ordinary pressure, and which form a useful introduction to the study of ionization. The accompanying illustrations represent some of these typical simple experiments performed by Mr C. J. Watson of Birmingham, which aroused considerable interest at a recent scientific conference in that city, and through his courtesy we are able to explain how they were carried out and how they may be repeated by any interested reader.

It is well known that if a pointed wire be connected to one pole of an influence electric machine, and the other pole is earthed, a discharge of electricity will be obtained. The proof of electric discharge may be easily verified by means of a lighted candle and a gold-leaf electroscope. If the former is placed on the cap of the latter, the electroscope, even if disposed several yards from the machine, will collect continuously the electricity discharged from the machine. Similarly, if the action is carried out in the dark, a small stream of purple light may be seen, which although scarcely visible, will exercise a pronounced marked influence upon an exposed photographic plate. Another method in which this discharge may be ascertained is to place a condenser, comprising a piece of glass 1/16 inch thick coated on both sides with tinfoil to within 1/4 inch of its edge, opposite the point of the wire. Then connect the two opposite coatings of tinfoil with a strip of the same material, which has a fine cut in it. When the reverse side of the condenser is connected to earth, there will be a distinct spark jumping across the narrow gap.

If this discharge point then be immersed in a metal box fitted with an opening which is covered with perforated zinc, so that the electrified air is forced through the perforations, if the box is earthed it will be found that the air which is thus expelled is totally deprived of electric charge. It thus appears that the



Fig. 1.—Interposing a non-conductor in the path of the ions.

electric charge is not carried by the particles of air generally, but by a smaller number of what for the present are generally described as ions.

Several simple experiments may be carried out to ascertain the paths pursued by these ions. For instance, take a sheet of ebonite the reverse side of which is coated with tinfoil and earthed, and place it a foot distant from the discharge point. It is advisable to pass the sheet over a gas flame for a few seconds before each experiment, so that any electricity present in the sheet may be eliminated. When the discharge from the electric machine is carried out for about one second, the sheet will be charged sufficiently. No visible effect of this occurrence will be

observable; but if the sheet is sprinkled with a mixture of powdered red lead and sulphur, and the same experiment is repeated with an obstacle of non-conducting material interposed between the discharge point and the sheet, such as may a cross, an image of that object will be produced upon the plate. If negative electricity has been discharged from the electrical point, then the sulphur will collect on those parts

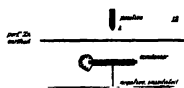


Fig. 12.—Forcing a discharge through a zinc sieve.

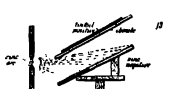


Fig. 13.—Effect of ultra-violet rays on zinc.

Immediately beneath the object, while the red lead will adhere to those parts charged negatively by the unimpeded discharge on the surrounding areas. The drawing, Fig. 1, shows how the experiment is carried out, while the photograph, Fig. 2, gives the result of the interposition of the cross in the path pursued by the ions.

The image of the object is usually enlarged, but this factor is influenced to some extent by the length of time of the electric discharge. A preferable method is to take a sheet of celluloid, as shown in Fig. 3, perforated with holes at regular distances. Then when the image of these holes is obtained, as shown in Fig. 4, the distances between their centers can be measured. When the distance of the ebonite sheet is varied (the distance of the celluloid sheet from the electric pole being kept constant) it will be found that the size of the image grows with the distance, but not proportionately. The electrified particles or ions travel along the lines of electric force, and consequently generally in curved lines. This has been proved by using, in stead of a point, a long thin wire held parallel to the interposed sheet of celluloid when the lines of force are circular arcs passing through the wire, and striking the ebonite perpendicularly to its surface.

It will also be found that the streams of ions mutually repel each other, so that if the electrified point is very near to the celluloid, the individual images of the holes will be found to have enlarged themselves at the expense of the intervening spaces and will even be observed to have assumed almost a square form, as shown in Fig. 5. This is of course analogous to what is observed with the cathode rays of highly exhausted tubes. A similar repulsion is also manifested when an insulated metal object is used as the interposed object. This is illustrated in Fig. 6 which represents the effect produced by a piece of brass tubing on the end of an ebonite rod, both being of the same diameter. (Continued on page 250.)

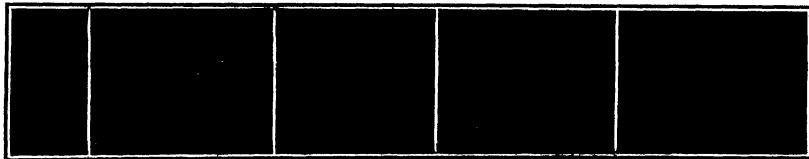


Fig. 3 to 6.—Shadow effects produced by interposing non-conductors in a stream of electrified particles.

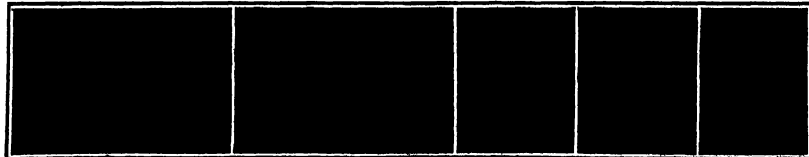


Fig. 7 to 11.—The effect of an air blast on the discharge, and of forcing a discharge through perforated zinc.

THE IONIZATION OF AIR.—SOME SIMPLE EXPERIMENTS.















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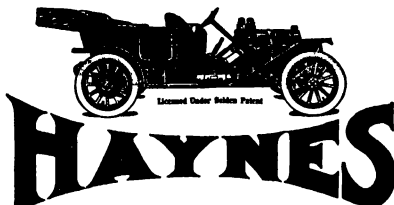
electrical machine is set in action the filings will disappear from under the ebony cross, giving a well-defined image, as shown in Fig 9.

In the early part of this article it was pointed out that the electric discharge would not pass through perforated zinc under the circumstances then prevailing but it can be made to do so. To bring about this result place a plate of metal connected to the second pole of the machine beneath the ebony sheet in such a way as to bring it opposite the discharge point A in Fig 12. Sprinkle the surface of the ebony sheet with the powdered red lead and sulphur, and in terpose an earthed sheet of perforated zinc or a metallic sheet between the discharge point and the ebony. When the electrical machine is set in action a perfectly defined image of the perforations of the zinc objects will be obtained upon the ebony sheet as shown in Fig 11. If the plate condenser with its connected sides of tinfoil, mentioned previously is used, the image of the lens through the perforations may be ascertained by the sparks jumping across the narrow gap. The explanation is that under the conditions described the electric field of the ebony sheet is interrupted from the point of discharge to the insulated metallic plate, so that the perforated sheet is in a perfectly neutral condition and warily in terprets the ions.

Several other striking and interesting methods of ionizing air can be carried out, such as by a flame, white-hot metal, electric sparks, and so on. One of the most impressive is that showing that ionization is produced by ultra violet rays falling upon zinc. If a plate of clean zinc connected to a gold leaf electroscope is negatively electrified and illuminated by the light of burning magnesium, or better still by an electric arc between zinc electrodes it is rapidly discharged. If the charge is positive, the phenomenon will not be produced. The experiment will also serve to show that these negative ions follow the difficult paths of the lines of force.

The illustration, Fig 17 shows how to carry out this experiment. The tinfoil backing of the ebony plate is connected to the positive pole of the machine. Opposite this plate a small, thermoplastic plate of sheet zinc, connected to the negative pole of the machine leaving a clear width of about three inches between the two plates. The zinc plate is illuminated by the ultra violet light from the zinc arc light for about a minute. Under these circumstances the lines of force run perpendicularly between the two plates, and if any design is painted in varnish upon the zinc plate, the emission of ions from that portion of the zinc will be arrested and a reverse image of the design will be obtained on the ebony plate when subsequently dusted with the powdered red lead and sulphur mixture.

The experiments of Sainte-Claire Deville and Caron apparently prove that the Oriental sapphire owes its beautiful color to the presence of a minute quantity of chromium in a state of oxidation lower than that which corresponds to the sesquioxide. It has no titerite base, but is possible to reproduce the blue color with the aid of chromic acids and reducing agents, nor yet to obtain by fusion in the hydrofluoric flame, artificial sapphires colored by traces of oxide of iron. If however, a small quantity of titanate acid is added together with the oxide of iron, the reduction of the acid in titanium oxide takes place to such an extent that the mass fuses and assumes the fine blue color of the sapphire. This result has been obtained by Verneuil, who is of the opinion that in addition to sapphire colored by oxide of chromium there is an other variety which owes its color to oxide of iron and titanium. We have seen specimens of these artificial sapphires and to us they seem as beautiful as those of nature.



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# PUT THE BURDEN OF PROOF ON ME

As fast as they are asked for, I am distributing without a penny of payment 100,000 "KEENOH" Razor Sharpeners.

I am putting them for ten days' free trial, into the hands of men who use both kinds of razors, the safety and the old style.



If the "KEENOH" does not prove to every man who gets one in 30 seconds' time it will give him more money as keen and true an edge as he has ever shaved with—sharp it comes to us.

The "KEENOH" positively will make your safety blade sharper than it was when new, and enable you to use every blade for 500 to 1,000 perfect shaves.

Fill in the coupon, expecting all this, and expecting a great deal more—counting absolutely on a shave as fine and smooth (no matter what kind of razor you use) as the finest shave you ever got from the best barber who ever shaved you.

If your expectations aren't realized to the letter—your dealer takes the "KEENOH" back and doesn't charge you a cent.

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### The Coca-Cola Girl Calendar for 1910

It will send you this beautiful Calendar in return for the amount of the purchase.

This is the picture of the girl in the calendar is a beautiful illustration of the Coca-Cola Girl.

In the illustration, the girl is shown in a beautiful dress, holding a glass of Coca-Cola.

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"Built for Business"



This shows how the Grocer makes money with the "Rapid"

## The Rapid For Cheaper and Quicker Delivery

More than 100,000 smaller delivery expense larger profits—better satisfied customers—these are the results of "Rapid" Motor Vehicle delivery.

We have the best based on the experience of hundreds of users of the "Rapid" in 52 lines of business. We can show you that you will save money and increase your business with a "Rapid" Delivery.

"Rapid" motor vehicles, will cost between \$40 and \$60 a day compared with 20 miles that it will travel. A "Rapid" will do the work of two horse delivery wagons. The main expense of a "Rapid" is an intelligent man to learn to do a very good job.

A "Rapid" cost to maintain but half the expense of three horse teams. The "Rapid" will travel 24 hours a day if necessary. As an alternative of operating methods, one of these handwagons is not as equal. Following are some of the lines of business for which "Rapid" motor trucks are particularly adapted:

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## Boston Garter

The Boston Garter grasps the leg and your half hose in a way that feels good and safe.

See that Boston Garter is fastened on the right.

WORN THE WORLD OVER BY WELL DRESSED MEN.

Single Tail, Double Tail, etc., etc.

Made in America.

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### Ideal Lawn Mower Grinder



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# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

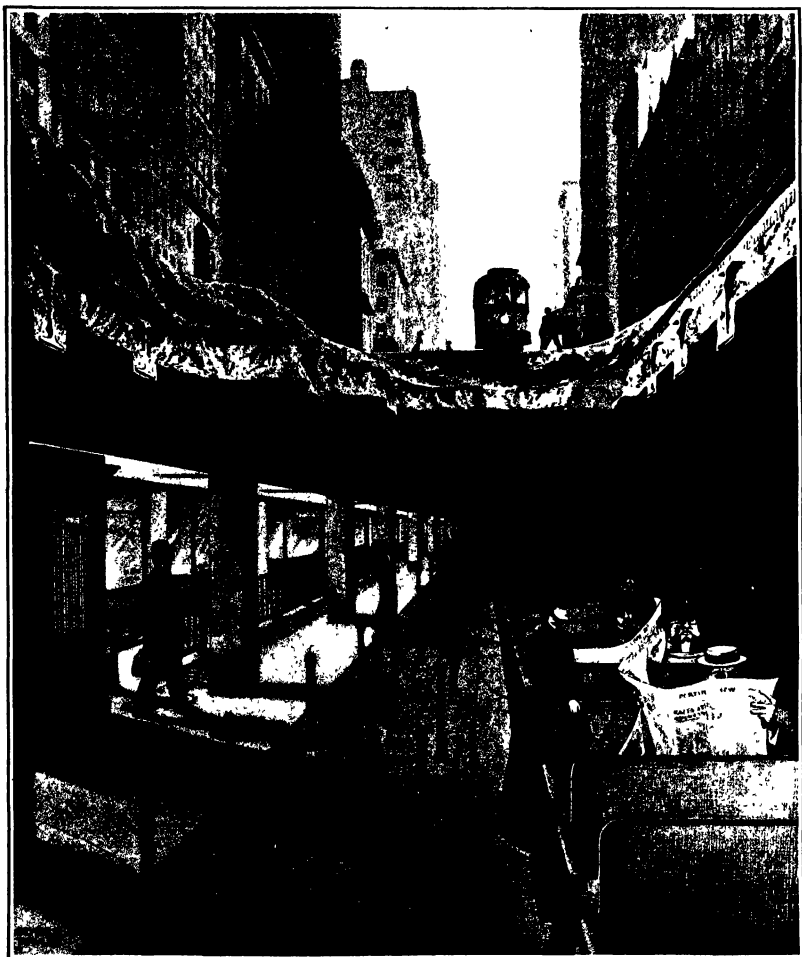
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A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS

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NEW YORK, MARCH 26, 1910

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The method of transportation by moving platform shown above can carry, according to the Public Service Commission, 75,500 people per hour at 12 miles per hour. Up to distances of 4 miles this is as fast as travel by the present combined express and local service. The express trains can carry 10,000 and the local trains 22,500 per hour. The successive platforms were at 0, 6, 9, and 12 miles per hour.

RAPID TRAMWAY BY BELT CONVEYOR.—(See page 257.)



# AERONAUTICS.

Mr. Adair, the Frenchman said to have downed about 1,000 feet in 1897 with his steam-propelled monoplane, the "Avion," has recently been decorated with the red ribbon of the Legion of Honor. His machine is said to have embodied the wing-warping principle since patented by the Wrights.

Proceedings have been begun in France to invalidate the Wright patent No. 342,188, of March 24, 1904, on the ground that it was not worked in France within three years, as must be done according to the statute. In searching for antipatents the French lawyers have discovered the English patent No. 293 of Matthew W. Boulton, granted in 1809, which provides movable wing tips or "ailerons" for the purpose of transverse stability. In 1870 Rich and Harrie, another Englishman, took out a patent (No. 1469) for maintaining transverse stability by means of revolving wing tips operated by a weight.

The second annual combined aeronautic and motor boat show opened in Olympia, London (England) on March 11th. Besides numerous small models, forty to fifty aeroplanes and balloons were shown. In addition to the regular French models of Wright, Blériot, Farman and Santos Dumont, a number of British built duplicates were shown by well-known firms, as the Humber Company, for example. In addition to these there were a number of new aeroplanes built by English inventors. Interest in aviation is very strong in England at present, and several big aviation meets are planned for the coming summer.

In preparing for a re-hearing of his case on the 19th inst., Glenn Curtiss has experimented to see how much resistance can be interposed at the ends of the planes of the biplane without causing it to sway. He used small vertical fins 12 feet in size, and found that these could be set at right angles to the line of flight for a few seconds without causing the aeroplane to swerve from a straight path and without moving the vertical rudder. As the resistance of the balancing planes which Curtiss uses is far less than is obtained in the manner just described, there can be no turning tendency produced by them, and hence no use of the vertical wing tips, containing them. Mr. Curtiss has also flown with the vertical rudder tied and with it loose, showing that a movement of this rudder is not required. We also learn that the Autostrator, which is being flown with the vertical rudder left off. With these practical demonstrations of flight without the use of the Wrights' patented combination, there seems to be little doubt that any inventor who calls this may institute will be successfully defended.

On Saturday March 12th, Aviator Louis Paulhan made only a short straight line flight of 500 to 600 feet at the Jamaica race track. The strong wind of 25 miles an hour velocity, and the few spectators were the principal reasons. On Sunday, however, several thousand people journeyed to the track, many of them in automobiles, and despite a wind nearly as strong as that of the day before they were not disappointed. About 4:45 P. M. Paulhan started against the wind, which was blowing directly across the track. His machine rose after a run of some 75 feet and traveled diagonally across the track while swerving constantly at an angle of 15 to 20 degrees. It rose to a height of 300 feet above the trees on the opposite side of the track, then, turning around, it sped back with the wind, passed over the grand stand and, making a wide loop, landed suddenly and to earth at the very point at which it started 8 minutes before. Paulhan's was the most thrilling exhibition of flight ever seen near New York, and it is unfortunate that a dispute with his manager has stopped any further demonstrations.

On March 1st and 2d Mr. Henry Farman made some record flights with passengers with a new biplane. His machine was originally built for the Rheims meeting last year, but did not fly there owing to an accident. Despite its small size and surface, it showed excellent lifting power and stability. The spread of the upper plane is 34 feet, while the lower plane is 12 or 14 feet wide, and the wings are set cut away in the center to accommodate the propeller. Movable flaps are fitted to the back edges of extensions of the upper plane only, and the tail consists of but a single horizontal surface, the ends of the two halves of the vertical rudder. The machine is mounted upon combined runners and skids and fitted with a 50 H. P. Gnomon revolving cylinder motor. On the 1st run, Mr. Farman made a flight of over 14 minutes with Mrs. Farman and another passenger, thus beating his three-person record of 10:30 made at Reims on August 28th, 1909. The following day he again flew with two passengers and sustained about 45 minutes, or more than four times as long as the day before. On account of its reduced surface, Farman's biplane must have lifted over 8 pounds per square foot, which is a high figure for a biplane.

# ELECTRICITY.

In September of last year the Boston and Maine Railroad established a telephone train dispatching system on the line between Boston and Fitchburg. This system proved so satisfactory that the railroad is now about to equip two new divisions with telephones. One of the divisions consists of a 30-mile line, from Concord to Woodville, N. H., and the other of a 70-mile line, from Concord to White River Junction, Vt.

In a lecture before the Engineering Society at Birmingham, Sir Oliver Lodge discussed the question of protection from lightning. He stated that the problem consisted in finding the best method of dissipating the enormous energy of the flash, but that it was not wise to get rid of the energy too quickly. A thin iron wire was considered the best lightning conductor from the electrical point of view, but it is almost impossible to protect a building from lightning unless it is completely enveloped in a metal cage. It is by no means true that a building is safe when provided with a conductor reaching up to the tallest part of the building.

Experiments made with ultra-violet light appear to show that it is more effective for sterilizing liquids than ozone. The ultra-violet light is produced by means of mercury vapor lamps quartz tubes being enclosed by glass tubes which are in direct contact with the water to be purified. A French investigator, M. Victor Henri, has found that the bactericidal action varies greatly with the distance of the lamp from the bacteria. With a Cooper Hewitt lamp of 110 volts an exposure of 300 seconds at a distance of 60 centimeters was required in order to kill the bacillus coli. At a distance of 40 centimeters an exposure of 180 seconds was sufficient, and at 20 centimeters 20 seconds. The temperature appeared to have little if any effect for the microbes were destroyed even when the liquid which contained them was frozen. In treating opaque liquids such as milk it was necessary to spread the liquid out in a thin layer. For milk the maximum thickness of layer with which the effect could be produced was one inch. Another investigator produces the ultra-violet light by means of electric sparks in a rare atmosphere of carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide, sulphurated hydrogen, or sulphur dioxide.

An interesting description of the rural telephone lines in the Ozarks was published in a recent number of the Electrical Review and Western Electrician. The farmer in this region, matter how poor he is, has a telephone. The telephone lines have been installed by amateurs and every variety of telephone is used on them. Owing to fear of lightning the poles are from the pole line to the house line made up by bending the ends of the wire and hooking them together. When a thunder storm approaches this connection is unhooked and it frequently happens that the owner forgets to reestablish connection with the main line after the storm. The lines are all grounded, making it very difficult for one party to call another. Fifty telephones to a line is considered a light load. The lines are supported on such poles as can be easily obtained, which are seldom sunk to a sufficient depth in the ground to prevent them from leaning at all angles. Trees are also used to support the lines and the branches are seldom cut away to clear the wires. However, the subscribers appear to be satisfied if only their line "talks." The subscribers usually comply to put up a switchboard in the nearest town and pay some one for attending to the calls.

A very interesting method of electrophoresis has been described in England. It is to be deposited in nitric in powdered form with other substances and it is merely necessary to wet the powder and rub it on the surface that is to be plated. The other ingredients are an electro-positive metal such as zinc or magnesium, an inert substance such as chalk, and a salt which when wet serves as an electrolyte. The following description of the process is given by the author: "The electro-positive metal constitutes the anode and the object treated the cathode, and as 'Gaiant' contains a quantity of finely powdered electro-positive metal it makes innumerable contacts with the cathode surface and acts as so many minute anodes. These innumerable minute anodes gradually dissolve, and in dissolving set up in the liquid little local circulations of electric current. The elements are so exceedingly small, so exceedingly near together, and so numerous that they cannot be separately observed, and the surface of the metal becomes the seat of innumerable concomitant voltaic and electrolytic actions. Thus the potential or stored up energy of the elementary substances is gradually converted into electric current, and as these currents leave the liquid they throw down from the metallic salt in solution a thick film on the cathode, and it becomes plated over with a deposit."

# SCIENCE.

Prof. Lowell announced that he has discovered a new canal a thousand miles in length on Mars. The canal developed between Mars and September.

It is stated that many of the literary newspapers, printed twenty years ago are disintegrating because our modern wood pulp paper is not permanent.

The collection of Indian costumes, weapons and utensils brought together by Sir W. Lockhart of Philadelphia and valued at \$40,000, has been bought by J. Pierpont Morgan and given to the American Museum of Natural History.

The astronomical clock at Hampton Court Palace has been removed for repair and setting for the first time for nearly thirty years. The clock, which was the first of its kind in England was made by Henry VIII in 1540. In 1880 it was brought from a shed at the palace where it had lain for nearly half a century, and by the order of the Office of Works was re-erected in the position which it has since occupied in the courtyard of the palace.

The comet discovered by Daniel in December is not the same as one discovered in 1867, for which a period of about forty-two years had been found. Then let's comet has been found to be the Jupiter family of comets having a period of about six and a half years. It is the first of the Jupiter group, and four or five of them pass through perihelion every year, but they are in many cases so faint as to elude observation altogether.

W. W. Coblentz has discovered that one of the ingredients of the milky fluid which the firefly (*Photinus pyralis*) exudes when touched exhibits an intense blue fluorescence when it is exposed to ultra-violet rays. The fluorescence spectrum is very bright and continuous from 4700 to 6100 mμ (*mμ*, the unit in which wave lengths are measured equals 1/10,000,000 millimeter or 1/25,000,000 inch). The "phosphorescence" light which the firefly emits at night is orange-colored, and its spectrum, extends from 6100 to 6700 mμ. Hence the two spectra are mutually complementary.

In the northern part of Arrahang, which is the most northerly government of European Russia, a farm for the breeding of domestic animals, such as foxes, rabbits, martens, and other valuable fur-bearing animals is being established by German capitalists. The soil and climate of this district are exactly suited to the breeding of domestic animals. The cost is only about 5 cents per acre, so that the venture appears very promising at first glance. On the other hand, a large initial outlay is required. The farm contains a large number of buildings, and the work of shifting from which cost \$67,000, but the burrowing proclivities of the foxes and rodents will probably make it necessary to extend this barrier underground.

F. Soddy finds that the growth of radium proceeds according to the square of the time. On the assumption that no other intermediate bodies intervene the period of the direct parent of radium is 17,500 years. The amount of radium present in the last prepared solution is less than that to be expected, this suggests the existence of at least one new product, "Uranium A." Intermediate between uranium X and the parent of radium is a period of the order of one year. It is concluded that this would not appreciably alter the production of radium according to the square of the time over the period observations have been made, but the smallness of the amount of radium at the average life of the parent of radium according to the Rutherford formula.

A German bird fancier has made a series of experiments for the purpose of determining the vitality of eggs in different stages of incubation. On the fifth day of incubation the embryo bird's eggs were taken from the nest, marked with numbers and replaced in the nest, one by one at half-hour intervals. This experiment was repeated with a series of eggs. As a rule the first three eggs replaced hatched normally and the two others failed to hatch. Hence it may be inferred that the average longevity of a set of eggs is 14 hours. On the fifth day of incubation is 14 hours. In the same way the longevity was found to increase to 2 or 24 hours on the seventh day and 3 1/2 to 4 hours on the ninth day. It was found that on the day of accident that eggs in a very advanced stage of incubation can endure very much longer periods of removal from the nest. Two eggs, purchased as plover eggs, were taken from the nest and placed in a basket, brought home, and forgotten. On the evening of the following day a faint "peep" recalled the existence of the eggs and it was found that a young plover had come from one of them. The second embryo soon made its appearance but lived only a few hours. Hence it appears that the vitality of partly hatched eggs depends on the size of the bird as well as on the stage of incubation.

# An Account of a Trip in the Largest Balloon Ever Constructed

A BALLOON TRIP OF FORTY YEARS AGO.

It is doubtful whether the sensation of traveling in an airship has ever been better described than was done forty-nine years ago last June by Gerrit Mallery and published in the Philadelphia Inquirer, June 20th 1860 after a voyage in the largest airship that had ever been constructed up to that time.

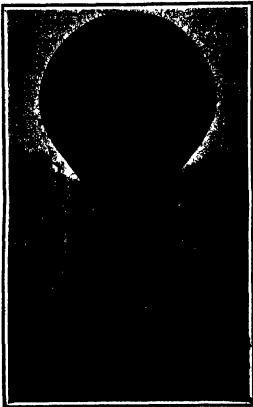
Mr Mallery was a gentleman of education and fine descriptive talent and later commanded a brigade of cavalry during the civil war. Prof. T. B. C. Lowe, the aeronaut in charge, has a distinguished civil war record as an aerial scout. He is constructing a great modern airship in his home city, Pasadena, California in Mallery's account, somewhat abbreviated.

"The ascent of Mr Lowe's mammoth airship on Thursday last was by no means an ordinary occasion. *Forty-nine* scientific aeronauts had in treatise and speeches positively demonstrated that it could not float.

Accordingly, when on the ground, we were beset with gratuitous advice from self constituted professors and atmospheric voyagers to the effect that it was madness to risk the untried experiment, and as to our friends we were ridiculed, threatened, calumniated, bribed, and wept over by turns.

"So we held a council of war with ourselves in attempted cool reason and positively could not see why an increase of capacity in a balloon must necessarily diminish its efficiency, or that a greater range in the amount of gas to be evolved on the occasion, and in the number of men and bags to be retained or thrown away according to the object of ascent or descent, should destroy control over the element to be navigated.

"The few uncut ropes are held by strong arms, the enterprising workman who seems to desire an ascent on the edge of the basket is induced to get down and put a bag of sand in his place, the other two gentlemen who determine at the eleventh hour to acquire aerial honors scramble in when the swaying has begun, the 'last dying speech and contention' has been made, all hands let go—and we are off! We don't believe it, however, in the slightest degree. There is no motion perceptible, and we ourselves are entirely stationary. Something to be sure is the matter with the field. It has dropped. Perhaps that is the reason why the crowd down below there is making such a noise. They



LOWE'S DIRIGIBLE BALLOON.  
After an old newspaper print.

are frightened, most probably. To be sure, they have some reason, for it is a rather alarming occurrence for the solid earth to fall down in that way, especially when all nature is so calm, and the sun shines so happily, and our car is so nice and fixed. So we feel badly about our unfortunate fellow beings who are momentarily becoming smaller. Suddenly a brilliant idea

seizes us that we have actually begun the great ascent, and we forthwith begin to wave the flag and hurrah and jump. No, we don't jump, for there isn't room, but we would if we could. The miles down below give cheer after cheer responsive, and run fruitfully in our course, and we fly away.

"Although nothing could have been easier than to have risen immediately to a great height, yet as the lower breeze was wholly unsteady and light, we purposely remained in it, as thereby a deliberate view of the city and its environs was presented that could not be hoped for once in a thousand times. We had precisely the day, the hour, the current, and, above all, the balloon for a bird's eye inspection of Philadelphia, so sailed calmly on, silent, and ravished with ecstasy. At the altitude of three thousand feet we look down fondly on Grey's Ferry, Darby, and the park, scenes of our equestrian pleasure, and then turn to the sparse houses of semi-rural Moyamensing, picturesquely isolated in green lakes and foliage. Next we glide on over the great city, seeming to lie asleep in that soft summer evening, with never a breath to disturb its happy rest, save the vague murmur of life which steals upward toward us, like the distant hum of invisible insects. We are higher now, and to the naked eye vast buildings like the Continental are distinguished chiefly by their known position, but as we pass along, the streets radiate on all sides with mathematical exactness, bordered with faint green lines of foliage. The public squares are patches of verdant enamel, and the spire point up at us with the beams of the sun shining from their whiteness until they only can be likened to the hear-front appearing on a window in winter. Far away Girard College is discerned in the distance as an antheap of marble dust, and Fairmount is found in a fairy tangle, with the Schuylkill curving close to it like a silver thread dropped, perhaps, from the robes of Titania herself. But it is perfectly vain to attempt any description of this most exquisite scene, which naught but the colors of the most skilled could pretend to convey to any who have not beheld it. Indeed, it was all to us but a seeming picture seen in an unscrupulous vision. There was no reality about it. We were real, and the car, but every-

(Continued on page 257)

## VERTICAL PHOTOGRAPHY

BY CHARLES MONROE MANSFIELD.

In recording scientific material, whether plants or their fruits, or any peculiar material of which a record in picture is valuable, the exact size is always desirable. Various apparatus have been constructed to support the camera and hold the subject, but the real secret lies in the focus of the lens. Any subject placed twice the focal length of the lens from the

lens, and the lens twice its focal length from the focal plane, will give a picture natural in size. For example, a nine-inch focus lens placed eighteen inches from the subject and the focal plane the same distance from the lens will give a natural size image in focus on the ground glass without further adjusting the camera.

Nearly all actual size work is done vertically. This gives the operator the privilege of manipulating his 'under ground' during the exposure without interfering with the subject. The object to be photographed is usually placed on a glass support, which may be either plain or ground, and the back or under

(Continued on page 257)



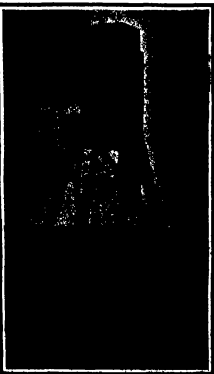
Just as ordinary camera and lifting tripod used. The height of the subject may be adjusted to give the support the needed height. The glass may be supported by feet set at a convenient distance from the photograph.



The operator can revolve the entire camera, during the exposure. The camera may be moved to the desired height and the glass on the back. This camera may be suspended from a tree.



This is a very simple stand for vertical photography. The camera may be moved to the desired height and the glass on the back. This camera may be suspended from a tree.



The object supports may be arranged that the camera may be moved to the desired height and the glass on the back. This camera may be suspended from a tree.

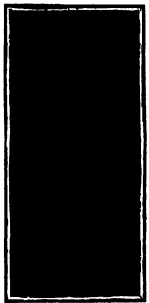
VERTICAL PHOTOGRAPHY.

# AN INTERNAL COMBUSTION WATER PUMP

THE INGENUOUS INVENTION OF H. A. HUMPHREY

Widespread interest has been aroused in European engineering circles in a new type of pump that has been evolved by a well-known English engineer, Mr. H. A. Humphrey, M. Inst. C. E. It is based upon an entirely new principle, and is a revolutionary departure from existing practice, the novelty of the design compelling as much attention as its remarkable efficiency and economy.

The pump is based on the fundamental principle of internal explosion, but does away with all the usual working parts of a gas engine, such as the piston, connecting rod, crankshaft, fly wheel, two-one gear cams and bearings. There are no moving parts whatever except the simple mushroom valve, which opens and closes automatically, due to pressure changes, and the use of a fly-wheel is not necessary because a column of water, forming part of the water pumped, acts as a retractor



INTERNAL COMBUSTION WATER PUMP.

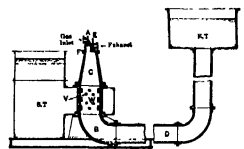
ating flywheel. The water column, which also acts as a piston, has four unequal strokes, such as they require when expansion is carried to atmospheric pressure. These strokes comprise long strokes during combustion and expansion as well as during exhaust, a shorter stroke during suction, and a still shorter stroke during compression. There is no valve across the discharge pipe at any point, so that the water has a perfectly free passage from the explosion chamber to the high level tank.

The explosive mixture of gas and air is ignited, as in the ordinary internal-combustion engine, and in contact with one end of a column of water which fulfills the dual function of piston and flywheel and moves so as to draw in a fresh combustible charge, to compress this charge previous to explosion, to permit expansion to be carried to atmospheric pressure, and finally to exhaust the products of combustion. All these movements are brought about and controlled by changes in the momentum, which occur naturally in the column of water itself.

In order to explain the cycle of operations in a pump of the simplest type, a reference to the accompanying diagram will be found useful. The pump proper is built up from three main castings. These are the combustion chamber C, the water valve chamber W, and the bend B, which connects the pump to the discharge pipe D, leading to the elevated tank K. The suction tank S is extended to embrace the free-value-chamber, as shown, so that there is free access of water to all the water valves V. The last are plain mushroom valves, opening inward, and held on their seating by light springs. In the top of the combustion chamber is an inlet valve A, as well as an exhaust valve E. Arranged between these two valves is a simple interlocking device, so that when valve

A has opened and closed it locks itself shut, and releases valve E, and when valve E has opened and closed it locks itself shut and releases valve A. On sequence, each time action occurs in the chamber, these valves open.

For the purpose of demonstration, suppose a gaseous charge is compressed in the top of the combustion chamber C, and is ignited in the usual manner by the sparking plug, which projects through the top flange or head of the combustion chamber. All the valves are shut at the instant the charge is exploded, and



SECTIONAL VIEW OF INTERNAL COMBUSTION PUMP.

the increase in pressure resulting from the expanded gases forces the water downward in the pump, and sets the whole column of water in the bend B and discharge pipe D in motion. The column of water attains kinetic energy while work is being done upon it by the expanding gases, so that when the gases finally expand to atmospheric pressure, the column of water may be moving, say, 6 feet per second. The motion (Continued on page 257.)

# RAPID TRANSIT BY BELT CONVEYOR

A PROPOSED AMPLIFICATION OF NEW YORK'S SUBWAY

The method of rapid transit by means of continuously moving endless platforms has never as yet received the attention which its unquestionable advantage deserves, for, within certain limits of speed, it possesses a capacity for carrying passengers which is so far beyond that of any existing system as to place it in a class by itself. That the system has never been put into practical application in the solution of those problems of congested city traffic for which it is so admirably adapted, can only be explained by the extreme novelty of the method employed, the inertia of that deep-rooted conservatism, which, even in this strictly utilitarian age, exerts such a powerful controlling influence on human affairs. The construction and operation of the moving passenger platform is so simple, and its great carrying capacity is so obvious, that its advantages are readily perceived even by the layman who may have no particular mechanical aptitude or training, and it is certainly significant that the proposal to equip a section of the proposed New York Subway with a moving platform has received the endorsement of such men as Henry B. Swann, the Chief Engineer of the Public Service Commission, and of Mr. L. B. Stillwell, the electrical engineer who was responsible for the electrical equipment of the Elevated Railroad and the New York Subway system. Interest in the proposed moving platform has been recently revived by the recommendation of the Board of Estimate of this city that a moving platform be installed in a subway extending across Manhattan Island from the West to the Hudson River, below Thirty-fourth Street, and on the front page of the present issue is a sectional illustration, which shows the general character of the construction both of the subway and of the moving platform itself.

In those branches of our industries, for the economical operation of which it is absolutely necessary that material be conveyed from place to place at a maximum speed and with a minimum cost, it has been found that there is no system of transportation which so perfectly fulfills these conditions as the belt conveyer. Particularly in this case where a great bulk of material, consisting of more or less dusty drilled units, such as coal, iron ore, and wheat, have to be moved in great quantities with so little inter-

ruption as possible and without any manipulation by hand. In this system, an endless belt moves continuously in a given direction, and facilities are provided for loading the material on the belt at any desired point and for unloading it therefrom at any desired point of delivery.

The moving platform is nothing more nor less than a large belt conveyer, in which the material to be conveyed consists of the twining millions which constitute the passenger traffic of a great city, with provision for loading the passengers at any point throughout the length of the platform and unloading them while the latter is in motion. The train consists of short jointed platforms, coupled together and forming an endless chain which is kept in continuous motion. This platform is provided with transverse

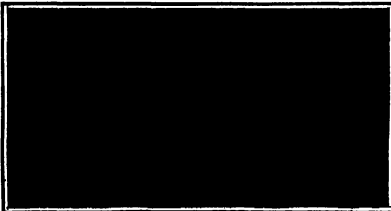
lators or moving stairways, of which many are now in operation throughout the country, removes any doubt of passengers being able after a little practice to accommodate themselves to the speed of three miles an hour involved in both the loading and unloading.

The advantages of the arrangement as summed up by the Chief Engineer of the Public Service Commission are as follows:

- 1 A vastly increased capacity, and seats for all passengers.
- 2 There is no delay incurred by waiting for trains at stations, as the train is always there and constantly moving.
- 3 Passengers may board or leave the train at any point at will, and instead of placing stations one-third of a mile apart, as on the present Subway, they may be placed at every cross street, or, indeed, at any intermediate point, and the construction may take the form of a continuous arcade.

In the general construction the tunnel would be similar to those built for the ordinary Subway traffic. It is proposed, however, to build arched platforms throughout its length, with store windows at basement level, and continue open promenade between them, and the barrier separating them from the Subway platform. At each street crossing, and if it be desired at one or more points between their ticket booths and turnstiles will be installed—an arrangement which would permit passengers to board the cars practically at any desired point throughout the length of the subway.

The arrangements for driving the platform by electrical power are as follows. Extending longitudinally beneath each platform is a pair of I-beams, the upper flanges of which are riveted to the bottom of the platform, while the lower flanges serve to support the weight of the platform upon pairs of wheels, which are carried upon transverse shafts mounted at intervals of 2 feet 9 inches, upon roller-pieces, as shown in the engraving. Between each pair of longitudinal I-beams is carried a pair of horizontal guide wheels which engage a guide rail that serves to keep the platform in proper alignment. At every 75 feet, 10-horse-power motors are mounted on the floor of the subway, and are connected by a chain drive. (Continued on page 255.)



View of the method of driving the platforms by means of stationary electric motors and differential rubber-tired wheels.

RAPID TRANSIT BY BELT CONVEYOR.

seats, and it travels at a continuous uniform speed of twelve miles per hour. For transferring the passenger from the fixed station platform to the seated platform, there are introduced between them three narrow "loading platforms" which move at differential speeds. The first of these adjoining the station platform moves at three miles per hour, the next at six, and the next at nine miles per hour. The passenger who wishes to board the train, leaves the direction in which it is moving, steps onto the three-mile-per-hour platform, and, crossing the other two successively, takes his seat. The masses of the accom-

### CONDENSED FACTS ABOUT HALLEY'S COMET.

A few facts presented in a condensed form may possibly interest the readers of the SEVENTH AMERICAN who wish to follow the course of Valley's comet in the heavens during its present apparition.

The perihelion passage occurred on November 15th 1915. The present perihelion passage will occur on April 20th 1916. The perihelion distance will be 0.587, and the aphelion distance will be 35.19. The eccentricity is 0.967, the length of ascending node is 57 deg 16 min, the node and apsis angle is 311 deg 17 min, the inclination of the orbit is (162 deg 12 min - 3) deg 48 min. The longitude of the ascending node is 76 deg 4', and the motion is retrograde in all ways opposite to that of the planet. The diameter of the nucleus can not of course be stated with anything like accuracy at the present time, but it is not likely to exceed 120,000 miles.

At the end of February Prof. Barnard of Yerkes Observatory estimated the tail to be 14,000,000 miles long. Just before and after perihelion passage the tail will be at least that long and probably longer. The comet is fast approaching its perihelion point, or point nearest the sun where, as we have said it is due to arrive on April 20th. During the months of February and March, the earth and the comet are racing on practically parallel orbits, 170,000,000 miles apart on opposite sides of the sun.

The comet first crossed the earth's orbit about March 10th at a point where the earth will arrive at the middle of next October, but far above where the earth will be so to speak for it will be some 10,000,000 miles above the plane of the ecliptic. In April the comet will emerge from behind the sun, and will become visible to the naked eye in the eastern sky before sunrise.

On April 20th, when the comet will swing around the sun, it will be 57,000,000 miles away from the sun. Its velocity will be 26 miles a second. The earth travels at about 19 miles a second. On May 2nd the comet will traverse the orbit of Venus, some 6,000,000 miles above the planet. In other words, an astronomer on Venus would find the comet a far more impressive spectacle than a terrestrial astronomer. As it rushes on, Halley's comet will pass between the earth and sun close to its ascending node. On May 18th the earth will be about 13,000,000 miles away from the nucleus or head as against 5,000,000 miles in 1835. Moreover, on May 18th the earth will be enveloped in the comet's tail for a few hours. A few days later the

comet will be visible in the western sky after sunset with a 15 deg or 20 deg splendor. After that it will speed away from the solar system. The last glimpse of it with the naked eye will be obtained probably at the end of June. It will not reappear for seventy-five years.

Halley's comet is noteworthy because it was the first comet for which an orbit was plotted and a timetable calculated. It has a history more or less identical

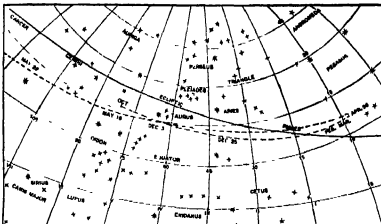
tion which was verified after the great astronomer was in his grave

**THE NEW ARGENTINE DREAMBOURNE**

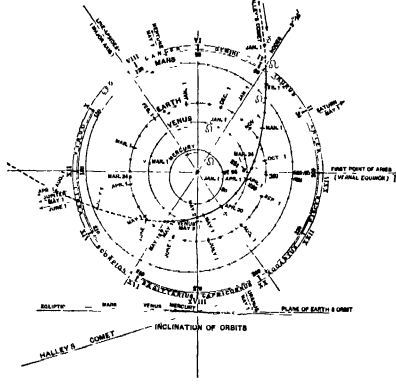
To South American interests, La Argentina and the Standard of Buenos Ayres, the latter of which is a very influential and quite complete information regarding the two new dreadnoughts, contrasts for the first time with the information which we have recently been secured by the Fore River Company. Comparison with the information furnished by the Fore River Company shows that in our latest dreadnoughts, the "Wyoming" and "Oklahoma," they are 50 feet longer, have about 3 feet more beam, about a foot less draft, and their armor is 12 inches thicker. Their main gun ships are as fully protected, and if expectations are fulfilled, they will have a faster speed, a result to be expected from the fact that their armor will largely contribute to their lineal plan appears to be about the same, with the addition, however, of a certain amount of special protection for the conning tower. The reason of the employment of the two central turrets diagonally, the end-on-end, both fore and aft, will be doubtless the result of our ships, the broader beam and the longer hull.

[illegible]

The separation of the one military mast from the neighborhood of the forward smokestack, bridges, conning tower and forward turrets is advantageous, in-



### THE APPARENT PATH OF HALLEY'S COMET THROUGH THE HEAVENS



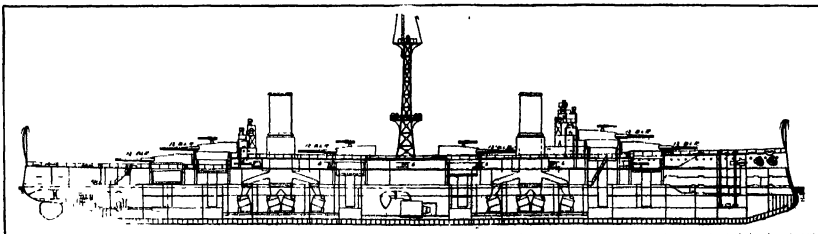
## HALLEY'S COMET AND THE EARTH

Notes on the orbits show positions of planets and comet every 10 days. Positions for January 1st 1910 are shown thus "Jan. 1." The ascending nodes, or points where the orbits first cross the ecliptic, are shown thus:  $\uparrow$  Dotted portions of the orbits indicate the part below the ecliptic. The outer circle shows the signs of the zodiac. The celestial (heliocentric) longitudes and the right ascension are indicated in hours. The Inclination Diagram shows the most acute of the comet's orbit.

sky when the Turks threatened to overrun Europe in 1456, and when the Reformation was at its height in 1531. It struck terror to the Saxons under Harold in 1066, when they were conquered by William of Normandy. This fear of the middle ages was dispelled only when Halley made his great prediction in 1682 that the comet would return in 1758, a predic-

are the two separate sets of boiler-room compartments, while fore and aft of these compartments, again, are the turret hoists and ammunition rooms for the forward and after pairs of turrets.

The separation of the one military mast from the neighborhood of the forward smokestack, bridges, conning tower and forward turrets is advantageous, in-



SECTIONAL VIEW, SHOWING LEADING FEATURES OF THE TWO ALTERNATE DELAYED-STARTS



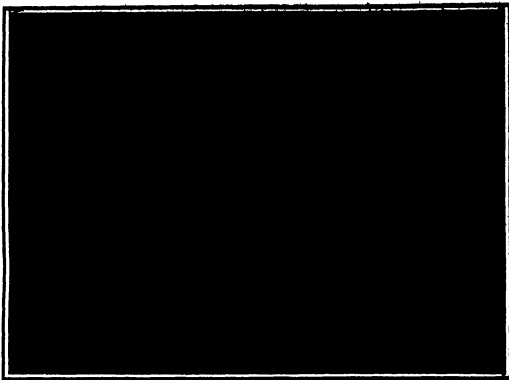
## A NEW TELEPHOTO CAMERA

BY THE PAPER ENGINEERING OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

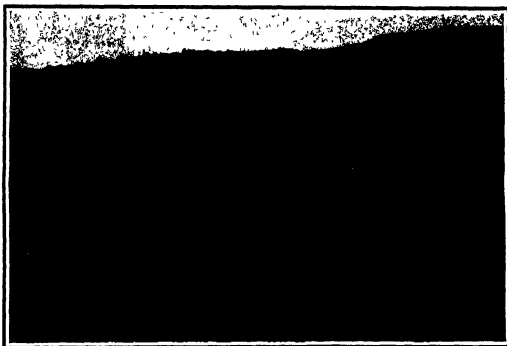
It may seem far easier than it is to construct a camera which will give an enlarged image so as to bring out the details of objects at great distances. To give a large image a long focus lens is required, of four foot focus for example. But a camera to use this lens must be of very great length and weight, and cannot, therefore, be said to be portable.

In the instrument illustrated, which was designed on the Vautier-Tréfour and Réha system, the inventors have solved the problem of preserving the focal length of the lens and at the same time reducing the volume and weight of the apparatus by cutting the focal length into thirds with the aid of two mirrors. At *a* is the lens which lies in the upper part of the double box. The rays passing through the lens are reflected from the upper mirror *M* placed at the back of the box to the mirror *M'* at the front end of the lower section, and thence to the usual ground glass *P* at the back. In this manner a camera of sixteen inches length is sufficient for a lens of four-foot focus, with an evident saving in weight and reduction of volume such an instrument is quite portable. The upper part of the camera is made on the extensible plan, and is drawn up and out of the lower box when the photograph is to be taken.

Up to the present time the different combinations of lenses for telephotography have all had one great fault, namely, a want of luminosity and consequent difficulty in focusing. It was almost impossible to use such lenses for snap shots. The camera illustrated takes instantaneous views in the usual way. The



The city of Neuchâten and the Rhine Falls taken with an ordinary camera.



A photograph of military maneuvers taken with an ordinary camera.

lens opening is always in ratio with the focal length of the lens,  $f/10$  to  $f/12$  for the extra rapid. The luminosity is thus always sufficient for instantaneous work. For the photography of inaccessible places, such as mountains or details of architecture or scenes in which the interesting spot is at a great distance from the observer, the new camera performs very good work, as will be noticed in some of the engravings presented here. In a balloon the new system renders it possible to take rapid instantaneous views which would be impossible with an ordinary tele-objective. Such views are very difficult to take, not only because of the distance of the objects, but because of the continual movement of the balloon, which makes rapid snap-shots necessary. Snap-shots can now be taken up to 1,000th second which would be quite impossible with any tele-lens with which we are acquainted. At the full opening the present lens gives pictures which are sharp up to the edge of the plate.

The present camera has already undergone trials in a free balloon on board the balloon "Mars" of the Swiss Aero Club, and the photographer took some very sharp views, which it would have been impossible to obtain with an ordinary apparatus.

Its use in field work is shown in two of the annexed views representing army maneuvers. In the first

view, taken with an ordinary camera, the troops in the background can hardly be distinguished, while in the second view we clearly see the individual soldiers and can follow all their movements with ease. One of the views shows a photograph, taken on board the balloon "Mars," of the town of Neuchâten and the Rhine Falls at an altitude of 1,400 meters (4,593 feet) with an ordinary camera. The second view is taken from the same point with the new apparatus. Its use in architectural work is also seen.

## Why Are We Right-Handed?

BY JOHN N. HUBER, A. B., M. A.

From time to time ambidexterity is extolled as generally desirable, and there are to-day educators who consider that development of the left, coequal with that of the right hand should be begun with the entrance of little children in our schools. It is, therefore, perhaps profitable to discuss in what manner right-handedness—by which I would here connote right-handedness in general—has become, habitual among 98 per cent of human kind; and whether ambidexterity is really desirable.

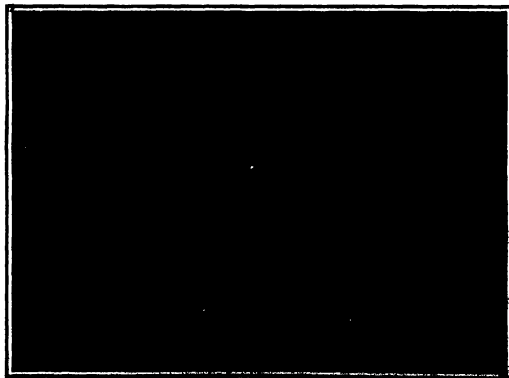
The lower animals, at least those which have not been taught tricks, use their fore paws indiscriminately, the cat strikes at a fly or plays with a mouse indifferently with either or both paws; the squirrel manipulates nuts and clings to branches quite as indifferently. Even in monkeys or gorillas, which of all animals use the fore paws mostly as hands, there is no suggestion of preferential use or superior expert-



*a* is the lens, *b* is the upper part of the box through the lens are reflected from the mirror *M* to the mirror *M'* and from there to the ground glass *P*. In this manner a camera of sixteen inches length is sufficient for a lens of four-foot focus.

replier took some very sharp views, which it would have been impossible to obtain with an ordinary apparatus.

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The city of Neuchâten and the Rhine Falls, taken with the Vautier-Tréfour camera.

A NEW TELEPHOTO CAMERA.



ness in the left or the right hand, states Dr. G. M. Gould, but animals can be trained to use one or the other paw, the dog is taught to shake hands with the right paw; the monkey to shoot musket butt at the right shoulder. Among microcephalic idiots, whose small-headedness is due to arrested development, left-handedness and ambidexterity have been found to reach a proportion of fifty per cent. But as we go up in the evolutionary scale of normal creatures, and as we exclude disease, we find that ambidexterity progressively gives way to single-handedness—generally right-handedness. Sir James G. Thompson observed quite truly some

years ago, that "by the superior skill of his right hand man hath gotten himself the victory" in the evolutionary struggle. To try to undo his detrimental pre-eminence is to make for devolution right-handedness in man, it seems, are manifest in the bronze age and in Paleolithic times. It is evident in the art of the ancients—Assyrian, Grecian, Egyptian. Historic investigation shows that all peoples, however savage, have uniformly used by preference not only one but the same hand—the right. It is said that some recent today manifest dextror-handedness, but this is in the last degree doubtful. Such statements have, for example, been made concerning the Japanese—that they are by law and practice ambidextrous. But Baron Komura has given positive assurance to the contrary. Sir James believes it doubtful whether "strictly speaking, complete ambidexterity exists in any fully developed and civilized human beings, though sometimes very close approximations to it occur."

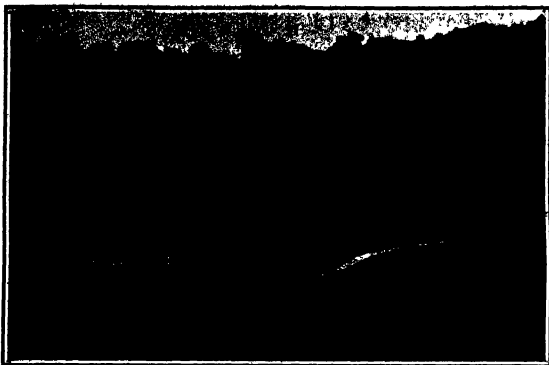
Most human beings, then, are right-handed, though of course, there are those of great intellectuality and force who are ambidextrous having educated themselves to this end, and are exceptional by reason of the peculiar and special training they have undergone. The origin of right-hand edness will be found, I believe, to lie much deeper than the individual's voluntary selection whether he will use his right hand or his left, or whether he will be ambidextrous, the reason is to be found in human

anatomy—in the position of the heart, and in the cerebral structure and organization by which latter all voluntary movements are directed and controlled. Consider in the first place how the heart and its

cessant nerve fibers, over the left side of the body, while the left brain provides over the right side. And functional differences in the two sides are connected with and contingent upon differences in the two hemispheres. The left brain, in all right-handed people, is more highly developed than the right brain. It is said that this greater development of the left brain in the right-handed is so because the heart "being on the left side of the body, sends its blood with greater force and directness to the left brain. It does send the blood more directly into the left side of the neck, but the flow of blood at the base of the brain is so equalized in the "circle of Willis," that the theory here stated can hardly be accepted as conclusive. Besides, it is contradicted by the cases of left-handedness (which make up about four per cent of humanity) in which the heart is on the left side, precisely as with the right-handed.

An extremely important anatomical consideration is that in right-handed people the "speech center" is situated in Broca's convolution in the cortex of the left frontal lobe, while in left-handed people the speech center is in the same position, but in the right frontal lobe. Now it has been found that damage to Broca's convolution in the left hemisphere deprives the right handed man of speech, which is unsurpassed in the left-handed man under the same circumstances, the left-handed man would suffer in the same way, were

(Continued on page 262)



Army maneuvers taken with the Vantier-Dufour camera.

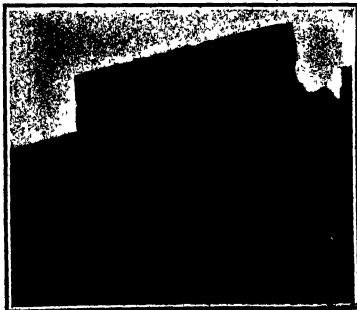
Arrow indicating the position of the quadrangle marked in the corresponding picture on page 261.



The Parthenon taken with an ordinary camera.

great arteries are left-sided, though in the primordial organ from which we have evolved there was, it seems, no such symmetry. The savage, from time immemorial, has protected his heart with

his left, his shield arm, but his extensive manipulations are made with his right, his spear arm. The modern savage too, though he bears no shield—which would be useless against modern weapons—draws his musket uniformly (in a double sense) from the right shoulder, sighting with his right eye, the sword also is wielded in the right hand. These



Detail of Parthenon taken with telephoto camera.



The effect obtained by ordinary enlargement of a detail in a photograph.

## THERMAL TREATMENT OF STEEL INGOTS

BY J. F. SPRINGER

There are two considerable imperfections which accompany the casting of steel ingots. The more conspicuous one is that of the pipe. This is a conical cavity which forms in the upper portion. In Fig. 1 we have in the center two longitudinal slabs taken from steel ingots which exhibit the pipe very clearly. The usual explanation of this curious formation is made it as a consequence of contraction. A mold full of molten metal can not be full when the ingot has cooled off. There is in fact a volumetric loss of perhaps 5 per cent. But this does not account for the form of the pipe. Why should it be conical? It has been suggested that perhaps contraction at the moment of solidification controls this matter. To this, however, the answer is made that gray cast iron expands at this moment, not contracts. It forms a pipe. Whether steel expands or contracts in the act of freezing no one seems to know with any certainty. But steel ingots form decided pipes as any steel maker will tell you. Prof. Howe has proposed an explanation which may help us somewhat. When the exceedingly hot steel is tumbled into the mold it finds the walls and bottom of that mold at a very low temperature, comparatively. These molds involve quite a large mass of material as may be understood by noting the substantial character of those shown in Fig. 2. Their cooling effect is consequently a considerable factor. The first solid shell of this cooling ingot will constitute a shell conforming to the sides and bottom of the mold and containing a heavy mass of molten steel. Now, whether expansion or contraction takes place at the very moment of freezing, the steel of this shell will undoubtedly steadily contract. As this goes on, it meets resistance from the weight of the liquid within. Prof. Howe thinks that at times the elastic limit will be exceeded. There would thus arise a tendency to a "wet," with the shell upon final cooling larger in cross section than would otherwise have been the case. Of course, the solidifying material contracting with the shell on the inside will cling to it. And further, one may conceive that, as the shell thickens, successive layers will come to normal temperature with expanded cross sections, for reasons similar to those controlling the outer shell. If so much is granted, it is easy to see that there is a tendency to leave the region of the axle empty. There is, however, another tendency at work seeking to nullify this. This is the gravitation of the fluid metal. This tends to fill up the pipe at the bottom. And so the lower portion of the ingot becomes solid throughout. But this transference of material from points above to points below impoverishes the upper portion, with the result that a pipe really forms, and that it is more extensive in cross section as one ascends.

To eliminate the pipe many procedures have been employed. These divide themselves into the mechanical methods and thermal ones. Perhaps the most successful process which has yet found its way into commercial practice is the Harmet procedure described in an article by the author in the *Scientific American* for May 25th, 1909. Methods, such as this, operate

with a view of eliminating the pipe through the forcing in of its walls upon themselves while the interior of the ingot is in a liquid or plastic condition. The elaborateness of the apparatus necessary, and the length of time required, are serious considerations

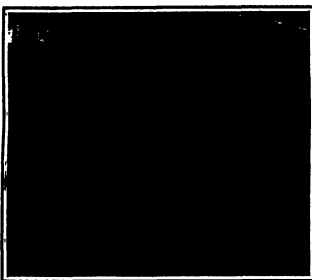


Fig. 1.—The six transverse slabs and the right-hand vertical slab were poured by the hot-top process.

which operate against some, at least, of the mechanical processes. But efforts have been made to solve the problem by thermal means. If the steel at the top could be kept highly liquid until the lower part of the ingot becomes solid, then with such a reservoir perhaps the pipe could be progressively filled up as it formed. Upon some such fundamental idea the thermal processes depend. Krupp is said to have poured molten slag upon the tops of the ingots. Apparently

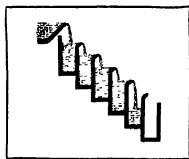


Fig. 2.—Krupp's overflow method of pouring ingots.

but little is known of the measure of success. This might, perhaps, provide a good method. The slag would furnish considerable heat. Its lower specific gravity would prevent any mechanical penetration into the steel of the ingots. It has been found that, if ingots are cast, having a considerable taper with the large end up, the pipe will be reduced. In fact, a very considerable shortening has been accomplished in this

way. Experiments have been tried where the metal was steel, slag, and wax. All show improvement. No doubt this effect is due to the retardation of the cooling thus effected at the top by the provision there of a larger mass of metal. That is to say, the pipe is shortened if cooling is accomplished from below. There is, however, a strong objection to this method in that, although its length is reduced, the pipe is now located in the large end, and thus involves more metal in proportion to its length. Its corrective influence is thus discounted somewhat. There is another objection on the score that this method would involve complications in stripping the molds from the ingots. However, that a large source of heat at the top is of advantage is further testified to by certain experiences had with thermite. It has been found that by introducing this compound by means of a rod into the upper portion of an ingot, the pipe could be somewhat shortened. This result is, no doubt, due to the considerable heat set free upon the chemical reaction taking place between the thermite and the molten steel. The experiments with wax ingots carried out by Prof. Howe and Roughton give evidence in the same direction. In account of these experiments may be found in an article by the present writer in the *Scientific American* for April 24th, 1909, where the marked difference in the length of pipe effected by casting with the big end up and the reverse is well shown by ingots Nos. 4 and 5. In the case of ingots Nos. 6 and 7 we have the contrast realized by keeping the temperature hot at the top and cool at the bottom and vice versa. The difference measured in percentage of ingot preserved from piping amounted to 48 per cent. This advantage of nearly one-half the whole ingot was in favor of the hot top. Of course, these experiments were carried out in wax and not in steel. At the same time, they have their weight as corroborative evidence. Some years ago experiments were tried with steel by what may be called the overflow method. This is Prof. Seurer's process. A number of molds were arranged in a way not unlike that disclosed in Fig. 2. By pouring continuously into the one on the left all may be filled. It was thus found upon one or more occasions that the first and second ingots whose heads were for the longest period kept hot and provided with liquid supplies of steel, disclosed no pipes. The next two had small pipes, involving about 4 or 5 per cent of the ingot length. Now all these experiences prepare us in expect a decided success from the Harmet hot top process as used in Germany. This inventor applies a gas furnace to the ingot top. Apparently, however, others had had a similar idea. It would seem that their processes received but inconsiderable attention. Now Harmet not only applies his furnace but he applies it at once. Further, he provides an immense supply of heat. He thus prevents any tendency to the formation of a crust over the top. However, whether we understand why it should seem necessary to furnish heat not only in great amount but with great promptness the fact

(Continued on page 263)

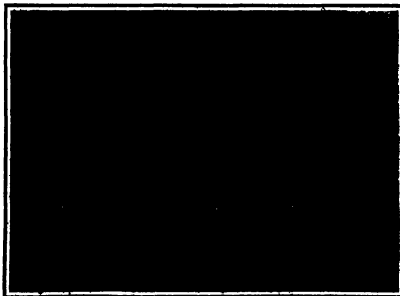


Fig. 3.—Gas furnace is here being used to pre-heat the mold before pouring the ingot.

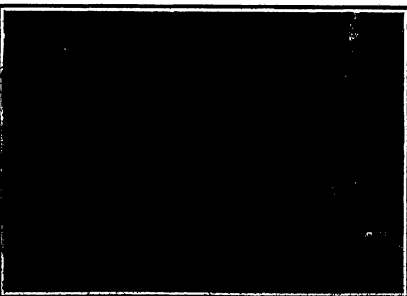


Fig. 4.—Gas furnace in operation heating the top of a 16-ton ingot while metal is being poured into the mold.

PATENT OF PIPES AND CORROSION BY KEEPING TOP OF INGOT AT POINT POINT DURING POURING.

## EGGS OF CURIOUS FORMS

BY PERCY COLLINS

When we consider that with the exception of the class mammals, practically every creature dwelling upon the earth at the present moment began life within the walls of an envelope popularly termed an egg, it becomes clear that the appellation must do duty for a very varied assemblage of objects. Not many people are aware that even the mammals (or animals that suckle their young) include several egg-layers, yet such is undoubtedly the case. These strange creatures are all native of that continent of animal curiosities, namely, Australia, although two of them—the echidnas—are also found in New Guinea. These echidnas are queer ant-eater-like animals, of

whose habits comparatively little seems to be known, save that they subsist mainly on insects, and that they really do lay eggs.

Much more detailed accounts are extant respecting the habits of the duck-bill *Ornithorhynchus paradoxus* (as science terms it), its not unlike a pigmy mole in shape, save that it possesses a remarkable tail and feet and bill of duck-like design. Its habits closely resemble those of the common water rat. Frequenting the streams of southern and eastern Australia, it makes its nest in a burrow in the bank. Here Mother Duck-bill lays two white, flexible-shelled eggs, about three-quarters of an inch in length. When first

hatched, the tiny duck-bills are both blind and naked, but in process of time they acquire the adult characteristics, and issue from the nest hole to food and frolic in the river with their parents.

Leaving now the mammals, we find that all known birds lay eggs, the largest being that of the ostrich. Many of these eggs come from Africa, and after being scratched, painted, "poker-worked" or otherwise adorned, are used for decorative purposes. Thus we are all familiar with them, and can realize that the contents of one would form a bountiful meal. But the ostrich's egg would have appeared quite small but

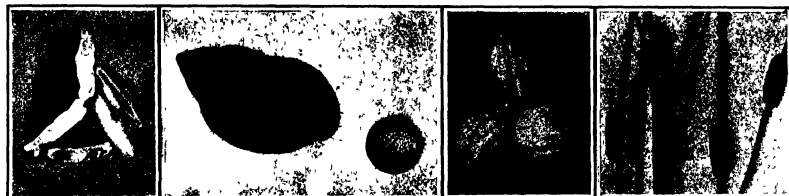
(Continued on page 264)



Duck-bill and egg.

Male midwife frog.

Duck's egg compared with kiwi and its egg

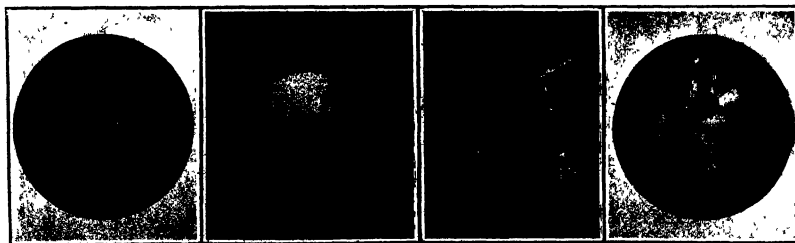
1 Egg cluster of common whale.  
2 Egg-shells of turret shell.Egg-case of  
egg-shell.Egg-case of hammerhead  
sharkTypical cluster of snakes'  
eggs

Eggs of honeycreeper (magnified).

West Indian Bullfinch shell and egg

Eggs of a moth (magnified).

Egg clusters of Monticola or "rear-horn"

Eggs of parasite of hornbill  
(magnified).Egg of gopher tortoise—a perfect  
sphere.Egg of parasite of domestic fowl  
(magnified).Egg of parasite of a bird house  
(magnified).

EYES OF OVERLAP FISHES.

## CURIOSITIES OF SCIENCE AND INVENTION

## MOTOR-CYCLE AUXILIARY FOR BICYCLES

A power attachment for bicycles has recently been invented which calls for no structural alterations to be made in the ordinary bicycle and which can be attached or detached in a few minutes. The device comprises a small auxiliary wheel 20 inches in diameter driven with a light motor which is connected to the rear wheel of the bicycle. An ingenious pivoting



A POWER ATTACHMENT FOR BICYCLES.

arrangement allows the wheel a peculiar lateral and vertical movement, so that the steering of the machine is in no way affected and permits the wheel to glide over obstacles or rough ground without transmitting any shock or vibration to the rider.

The motor is a small air-cooled, horizontal, two-stroke engine with a specially designed bell to which the power is transmitted through a six to one reducing gear. The magneto ignition and vaporizer are mounted on the same plane, and in line with the engine, so that the whole is rendered very compact.

The engine is valveless, the inlet and exhaust being governed by ports, alternately covered and uncovered by the piston. It develops 1½ horse-power.

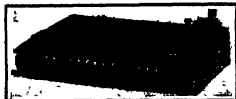
To attach the motor wheel to the ordinary cycle, it is only necessary to remove the nut of the back wheel spindle on the chain side of the machine, and to attach the frame of the auxiliary wheel to the spindle and bolt it up—an operation occupying a few moments. A single-lever regulator controlling the motor is clipped to the handle bar, the connection with the motor mechanism being a flexible wire. This single lever controls the action of the engine to a nicety.

The wheel complete weighs only 35 pounds, and the motor is capable of driving the bicycle at an average speed of 16 miles per hour on an ordinary road, with a maximum speed of about 18 miles on the level. The fuel tank in the mud guard is of sufficient capacity to carry the motor 100 miles.

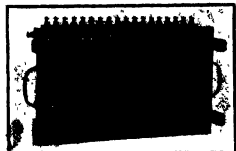
## A NOVEL HIGH-POTENTIAL PRIMARY BATTERY.

A new and ingenious high potential primary battery, the purpose of which is to supply electric charges at known potentials, was recently exhibited before the British Physical Society. The positive element of each cell consists of a small carbon rod, while a strip of pure zinc comprises the negative element, the electrolyte being a solution of calcium chloride.

The connected ends of the elements which are mounted in parallel rows of 25, are buried in paraffin.



A HYDROSCOPIC HIGH-POTENTIAL BATTERY.



BATTERY INVENTED TO SHOW THE KINO AND CARBON ELEMENTS.

Contact between the free carbon and the zinc elements is just broken by a small pellet of paraffin, and the liquid is retained between them by capillarity.

The electrolyte comprises a saturated solution of calcium chloride which has been exposed to the air. Both hydroscopic. It will absorb water until a certain equilibrium strength is obtained, this factor depending on the humidity of the air and the temperature. The electromotive force of each cell differs from one volt by only two or three per cent. It exposed to very different conditions of temperature and humidity, but it has been kept steady to within 0.1 per cent for two or three consecutive days.

In conjunction with an electrostatic voltmeter, the battery is very convenient for the following purposes. In all experiments involving the use of a quadrant voltmeter, as the needle can be charged to any desired voltage up to 1,000 volts, since the battery is so designed that one or any number of elements can be taken, for the comparison and calibration of electrostatic voltmeters, for the comparison of capacities, and for the measurement of high resistances by the method of discharging a condenser through them and noting the time taken.

## DETECTORS FOR FIRE-ALARM BOXES.

The problem of so designing a fire alarm box that it can be opened and operated by any one in an emergency and yet tend to prevent the sounding of false alarms, is one that has engaged the attention of inventors for many years. A very ingenious solution of the problem is presented in the accompanying illustrations. The alarm box is closed by a cover which has to be raised as shown in one of the illustrations to permit the operator to insert his hand through an opening and release the alarm mechanism. At the moment of the release a handoff closes over the wrist of the operator, as illustrated in another photograph. The handoff is not chained to the alarm box; for this would make a prisoner of the operator of the alarm, whose services might be badly needed at the fire. Instead, however, the handoff



The alarm box closed.

Opening the alarm.

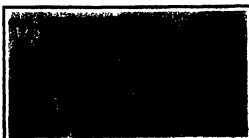
The operator's handoff.

## DETECTORS FOR FIRE-ALARM BOXES.

serves merely for identification. It is made of such form that it cannot be concealed under the coat sleeve and it betrays the sounder of the alarm to the general public, and is an honor to a man unless the alarm is a false one. Not until the fire chief has arrived with a special key to fit the handoff may the device be removed. This system is also applicable to boxes which are locked. It frequently happens in such cases that the keys are lost and it is impossible to determine who sounded the alarm even when it is known whose key is missing.

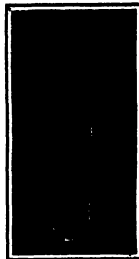
## CAPPING MILK BOTTLES BY MACHINE.

Great precautions must be taken in handling milk than any other form of food, because it is such an excellent medium for breeding germs. Hand work is always objectionable because of possible contamination from unclean fingers. Hereafter milk bottles have commonly been capped by hand. Now a simple machine has been invented for doing this work which



A MACHINE FOR CAPPING PURE MILK BOTTLES AT A TIME.

should be of value to small as well as large dealers. The machine consists of a magazine and a means of taking one cap at a time from the magazine and pressing it firmly into place on the top of the milk bottle. It not only adds to cleanliness in dairies, but saves time, inasmuch as it is many times more rapid in the operation of capping bottles than the human



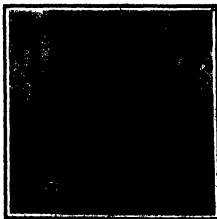
PORTABLE BOTTLE-CAPPING MACHINE.

hands. One type is portable and is operated by a quick squeeze of the handle. The other type consists of a battery of cappers which will operate to cap a number of bottles at once. The magazine takes the caps in packages from the machine which made them and obviates the necessity of handling the cap itself.

## UMBRELLA SHELTER FOR AUTOMOBILES.

It is impossible to enter a vehicle on a very rainy day without getting wet, because the umbrella must

be lowered before one can step inside. Surely it is just as necessary to provide vehicles with some sort of a shelter, such as the awning of a store or the marquee of a public building. However, anything projecting from the side of a vehicle would be objectionable. The difficulty is surmounted quite cleverly in the automobile, which is illustrated in the accompanying engraving. A collapsible awning is attached to the top of the automobile, and also to the top of the door, so that when the door is opened to admit a passenger or to allow a passenger to alight, the awning will open and protect him from the rain while he is raising or lowering his umbrella. When the door is closed, the awning shuts up like a fan.



UMBRELLA SHELTER FOR AUTOMOBILES.







turn flow, the column starts to move back toward the pump, and gases velocity in this movement until the water reaches the level of the exhaust valve, which it shuts by impact. The result is that a certain quantity of burnt products of combustion become imprisoned in the cushion space *P* and the energy of the moving column is expended in compressing this gas cushion to a greater pressure than that due to the static head of the water in the elevated tank *P*. Consequently a second outward movement of the column of water takes place, and when the water reaches the level of valve *B*, the pressure in the space *P* is once more atmospheric, and further movement of the water opens valve *A* by suction against a light spring, and draws in a fresh generous charge. If there were no friction the water would fall to the same level as that from which the last upward motion started, but the amount of combustible charge drawn in is slightly less than this movement would represent. Once again the column of water returns under the elevated tank pressure and compresses the charge in the combustion chamber which is then ignited at the moment of maximum compression, and the same cycle of operations is repeated.

The ignition is timed by a small apparatus somewhat resembling an ordinary engine indicator, which closes the electric ignition circuit at the point of maximum compression, an ordinary small battery, trembler coil, and sparking plug as are used in automobile practice.

In starting the pump for the first time, compressed air is allowed to flow into the combustion chamber until the volume of air introduced is rather larger than the usual charge. The exhaust valve is then suddenly opened by means of a hand lever, and the escape of the compressed air permits a movement of the water column, which gives the cushion and suction strokes, and so draws in a fresh cornucopia charge, which when the current is switched on and consequently fired, starts the pump working regularly. When the pump is stopped in the usual way in regular work, it always stops with a fresh charge of explosive mixture present in the combustion chamber, so that it is only necessary to switch on the current and the pump is started up. The operation of the pump is set in motion from the switch-board and without any preliminaries whatever.

The pump has been severely tested, and is now in regular daily work at a large pumping installation in the Midlands, giving complete satisfaction. The absence of all complicated gearing such as exists in the ordinary explosion motor is an outstanding feature, and guards the engine against breakdown, the only part that could fail being possibly a defective mushroom valve or spring. Wear and tear is also reduced to an insignificant quantity, and the troubles incidental to lubrication are overcome.

In its simplest form the apparatus converts gas power into hydraulic power, and may, therefore, be called a gas pump; but if the power is to be taken off a rotating shaft, the high pressure water is passed through a water turbine, and so back to the apparatus to be constantly re-circulated. The invention can also be applied with equal facility and efficiency for the compression of air.

The pump has been elaborately described by the inventor in a paper published in the *SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN SUPPLEMENT*.

#### RAPID TRAVEL BY RAIL COASTWAY.

(Continued from page 827.)

with transverse shafts which carry the driving wheels of the platform. The gradation in the rate of speed of the sections of the platform is secured by varying the diameter of these driving wheels, which are 14 inches in diameter for the 5-mile 14 inches in diameter for the 6-mile, and 24 inches in diameter for the 8-mile platform. The driving wheels are covered with

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## HALLEY AND HIS COMET

The year 1910 is destined to be one of the most famous in astronomical history, chiefly because Halley's comet has returned after a lapse of seventy-five years. Why and how all about this wonderful comet and about comets in general is presented by the following articles:

**Scientific American No. 15, Volume XXVIII.** *Com Planets, Comets and Meteoric Trails.* An article in which the investigations of C. C. Fries, of Columbia University, are described, showing that the meteoric products from a vacuum tube resemble closely the effect produced in the sky by the fall of meteors.

**Scientific American No. 16, Volume XXIX.** *The Mystery of Comets.* An article in which the famous comet of the last century are mentioned and described and modern cometary theories discussed.

**Scientific American Supplement No. 1728.** *Comets and Popular Means about Comets.* General information about the life of comets in popular language.

**Scientific American Supplement No. 1729.** *Comets.* An interesting article by Dr. Alexander W. Roberts, in which the general history of Halley's famous comet is illustrated with comments on its appearance.

**Scientific American Supplement No. 1725.** *The next appearance (1910) of Halley's Comet.* An important article by H. C. Wilson, with a map showing the position of the comet relatively to the orbits of the planets from September 15, 1908, to July 15, 1910.

**Scientific American Supplement No. 1822.** *Halley's Comet.* An article by F. W. Hooker, F. R. S., which has been the cause to discover the comet which bears his name, and how many astronomers have observed the comet.

**Scientific American Supplement No. 1725.** *Comets and the Prediction of the Next Appearance of Halley's Comet.* An interesting article by Dr. Alexander W. Roberts, in which the general history of Halley's famous comet is illustrated with comments on its appearance.

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rubber, as are the horizontal escape guide wheels, and consequently the motion of the platform will be both smooth and silent. The movement mechanism is coupled together by means of thin 48 inches in length, and the coupling pins are placed at the center, from which the curves of the sliding ends of the platform sections are struck; consequently, the opening between the joints may be reduced to a minimum, and a smooth surface presented for the wheels to run upon. The movement mechanism is so open space to be void of any trip the passenger.

The passenger-carrying capacity of the moving platform is based on double the maximum capacity of the present Subway train. According to the figures of the Public Service Commission, the total rush-hour capacity of the five-car local trains per hour is 23,500 and of the eight-car express trains 34,000, whereas the moving platform, according to their estimate, would carry 73,000 passengers per hour. They state furthermore that for all distances less than four miles the moving platform is a quicker and more convenient mode of conveyance than the present local train service and even quicker than the local and express service combined, since a passenger may reach Times Square Station from any local station south of Fourteenth Street (that is, supposing a moving platform were installed on a north and south avenue) quicker by the moving platform than by the local and express trains of the present Subway.

In conclusion, however, we would sound a note of warning with regard to the possible interference of any moving platform subway that may be built with any future extensions of the present Subway. In selecting the route, care should be taken to choose a location where the moving platform subway will not block any of the future through lines which must ultimately be run on practically every avenue in New York City.

#### Why Are We Right-Handed?

(Concluded from page 361)

the lesion on the right side. The hand and arm centers in the cortex are mainly linked in the cortex with the speech centers. And certainly Crichton Browne is correct in the inference that the preferential use of the right hand and arms in voluntary movements is due to the leading part taken by the left brain. "We could not get rid of our right-handedness, try how we might, it is woven in the brain." And this, I believe, is the conclusion to which we must scientifically arrive. "In the curious disease aphasia, in which one forgets words, the lesion lies in Broca's convolution, one cannot say cup, for example, though one sees a cup, but when the right hand touches the cup the patient at once utters its name."

Here one reflects. In the process of evolution, did the brain become on the left side, and the left brain took greater development, because the right hand came to be the most useful? Or did the right hand come to be most used, because of those heart and left brain phenomena? I am, for my part, of the former opinion; the heart on the left side, and the great left-brain development are effect rather than cause, coming gradually to pass as man, in the struggle for the survival of the fittest, found right-handedness more and more advantageous.

Of course, there are professions and trades in which a certain amount of ambidexterity is necessary. For example, the pianist, in playing the fugues of Bach, must produce with the left hand about the same notes as does the right, and has to work a little harder too, for the bass notes of the piano are more thickly written than the treble. A certain amount of ambidexterity is necessary for the surgeon. Yet this gift has its disadvantages, which, as when a colleague dined in this way admitted to me that before doing a thing he was obliged to



Some time is wondering which hand he should employ. But it is rarely really essential that such ambidexterity be acquired.

Finally, it may be objected, in favor of general education in ambidexterity. Suppose one loses his arm, and that such an unfortunate be a clerk, who must earn his living by writing. Such contingencies are almost as rare as the famous one by which Mrs. Brown purchased for her husband her husband's purchase of a brass sign stamped "John Jones, Undertaker." "Our daughter will soon be of marriageable age," she may marry an undertaker whose name may be Jones, possibly John Jones, think how handy the sign will then be! In these rare cases of right-handed mutilation there will in time follow, through education and practice, an adequate development of the right brain, just as if the unfortunate had been left-handed.

#### TREATMENT OF STEEL INGESTS.

(Continued from page 102.)  
remains that by doing so Riemer has been able to demonstrate his success in pipe elimination on a commercial scale. A large number of steel shafts, the steel for which was made by this process and with which the discard was kept at 10 per cent of the figure, have successfully passed the British Board of Trade requirements. Indeed, a reference to Fig. 1 shows an ingot, treated by this method, in six transverse slices on the right and left. The slab shown on the upper left hand came from near the top of the ingot. The longitudinal slice to the right of the center of the figure is from another ingot treated by the same hot-top procedure. The inconsiderable depth of the pipe shows the pretty evident it extends perhaps 10 per cent of the total length. But the actual percentage of steel involved is evidently much less than 10 per cent of the total length.

We have in Figs. 2 and 4 two views of the gas furnace. There is an eye at the top which facilitates movement of the apparatus. Through this eye the advantage in Fig. 4—the gas and air enter. The air is under pressure. In cases where it seems desirable to do so, the furnace may be employed for the purpose of heating the top of the mold preparatory to tamping the steel into it. The apparatus may then be let down until its lower edge is well inside the mouth of the mold, when the pouring of the steel may be performed without removal of the furnace. There is thus ample opportunity to begin action without delay. However, it is regarded as important to have not only prompt application, but an intense heat at once. This requirement is met by preheating both gas and air. In fact, heat may be applied in such intensity as to raise the temperature of the top of the ingot above the melting point. It has been found unnecessary to prolong the treatment until solidification is completed. This is a favorable time, as thus the superoxide of iron, and other service, to which its portable character makes it applicable. In Fig. 4 the furnace is in operation heating the head of a solid ingot. It will be understood that in this view the bulk of the mold is invisible. The naked flames play upon the metal at the top of the ingot, the preheating of the top of the mold tends not only to conserve the heat of the molten steel, but also to prevent heat loss by conduction from the top of the furnace is being used in Fig. 2 for the purpose of preheating. However, the ingot is, in this case, said to be present.

Now in all procedures the attention of the pipe, we must not reach that condition as to their success without inquiring as to the segregation. The segregation is a locality where the steel has an excess of carbon, sulphur, phosphorus, etc., beyond the average contained in the ingot as a whole. Ordinarily, it should be removed. As it is usually located near the tail of the pipe, it may be disposed of by cropping the ingot a little below that point. However, it is well to leave



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ligate this question with some thorough eggs, as the method of treatment itself may, consequently, introduce variations from the rule. The result of uniform composition is wanted. An ingot run by the hot-top process was investigated as to its composition. The average carbon content should have been 0.25 per cent. The taking samples along the axle all but one were found to contain carbon in per centage running from 0.22 per cent to 0.25 per cent. The deviation was close under the tail of the pipe. Its carbon percentage was 0.41 per cent. Similar results were found for sulphur and phosphorus. Thus they varied in the aggregate in percentage about three and one-half or four times what they did below it.

## EGGS OF CURIOUS FORMS.

(Continued from page 93.)  
the extinct Madagascar bird, the Pygmy, which measured more than thirty inches in its smallest circumference.

The smallest birds' eggs are those of the minute species of humming birds, which are smaller than the eggs of certain tropical beetles. But the common cuckoo nest is relatively small.

It is to say with the jackdaw and the cuckoo are about equal in size. The former's egg is five or six times larger than the latter's. The egg of the cuckoo is about equal to its own.

The eggs of birds which are usually much smaller than their own are the eggs of the extinct Madagascar bird, the Pygmy, which measured more than thirty inches in its smallest circumference.

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For the purpose of making a complete record of the work done in the various departments of the U. S. Geological Survey, the following list of publications is being issued in the form of a bulletin. The list is arranged in alphabetical order of the names of the authors or editors. The publications are as follows:

# The Design and Construction of Induction Coils

By A. FREDERICK COLLINS

Size 8 1/2 x 11 1/2 inches. Price \$2.00. 100 illustrations. Price \$2.00. 100 illustrations.

This work gives in minute detail full practical directions for making eight different sizes of coils, varying from a small one giving a one-half inch spark to a large one giving twelve inch sparks. The dimensions of each and every part are given. The work is given in the form of a book, and is the most complete and authoritative work yet published on this subject. The book contains all the information that is needed for the design and construction of induction coils, and is a valuable addition to the library of every physicist and electrical engineer.

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(Continued from page 270)

It seems that every day some four or five million persons attend the thirteen thousand moving picture shows of the United States. The pictures which flicker on the screen before the spectators are projected by means of apparatus, the basic patents of which were taken out by Thomas A. Edison. These four or five million persons pay for the privilege of seeing the pictures, and the money they pay is divided between the exhibitor and the owner of the pictures. The exhibitor pays a royalty to the owner of the pictures, and the owner of the pictures pays a royalty to the exhibitor. The exhibitor pays a royalty to the owner of the pictures, and the owner of the pictures pays a royalty to the exhibitor.

The action was brought by the Motion Pictures Patents Company to restrain infringement, but the defense set up was that the company violated the Sherman antitrust law. The defense was handed down by Judge Noyes of the United States Circuit Court was that the question at issue was patent infringement, and not a violation of the antitrust law, for which reason he granted the injunction.

The Sherman Motor-Car.

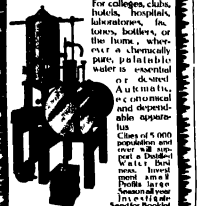
A successful demonstration was given recently at New Brunswick, of the Sherman motor-car. At the trial at New Brunswick, the Sherman motor-car was shown in operation. The trial commenced with running the vehicle loaded with passengers, round the circular track of 105 feet radius at a speed approaching 20 miles an hour. The stability of the car under these conditions was apparently all that could be wished, the vehicle turning over several degrees toward the center of the circle of track. This demonstration was followed by an exhibition of the facilities afforded by such a car for minimizing the vehicle was intentionally tilted over on to the right-hand side and the left side and other cases unloaded. It was then tilted and tilted over toward the left side and other cases unloaded. It was then tilted and tilted over toward the left side and other cases unloaded.

The next trial consisted in carrying passengers round the circular track. About thirty passengers were taken at a time, and several complete circuits of the one-mile track were made with each load. During these runs we timed several rounds at speeds of between 18 and 20 miles an hour. The motion on board was quite pleasant, the vehicle riding very well. The inward cant that the vehicle acquires when traveling on curves at high speed naturally added to rather than detracted from the comfort of the passengers. Altogether more than 200 persons had an opportunity of being on the car during these novel conditions. The demonstration which followed showed the ability of the vehicle to take sharp curves, this, however, revealing nothing more than was evident from the earlier trial toward the close of last year. The carriage, with passengers on board, was then run backward and forward at as high a speed as was practicable along the straight with perfect success. The slight lateral swaying under these conditions was quite easy, and free from jerks and jolts, and not at all unpleasant. The oscillation is of very small amplitude, as the controlling action of the gyroscopes quickly damps out any tendency to a larger movement.—Engineering (London).

A compound of six parts lard and one part rosin is given by the Bureau of Mines as an efficient protection for polished steelwork from rust. The two in the mass from becoming rancid, and stirred until cold. The rosin prevents the mass from becoming rancid, and also acts as an anti-rust film. If rubbed upon a polished steel surface it effectively preserves and protects the polish.

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The certainty of figuring his time in transit to the exact hour relieves his engagement list from entanglement.

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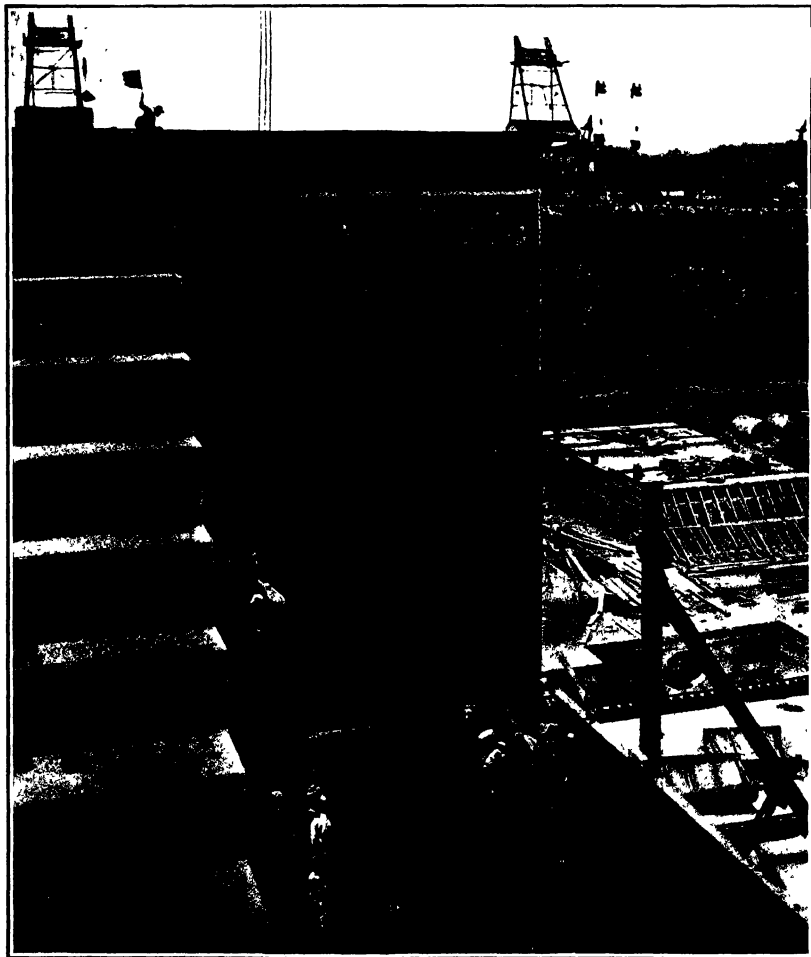
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Vol. 42, No. 14,  
Published 1910

NEW YORK, APRIL 2, 1910

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The side walls, 250 feet long, are built in sections between plate steel forms. To the right of the support wall is seen the interior face of a steel form, with the form for the end of the section upon which the men are at work standing temporarily. In the foreground the men are shoveling and tamping the concrete.

BUILDING THE ROUGH WALLS, 50 FEET THICK AND 50 FEET HIGH, OF THE GATUN LOCKS AT PANAMA.—[See page 279.]

# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

ESTABLISHED 1845

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 Postmaster: This publication is published weekly except on Sundays and public holidays.  
 Acceptance for mailing at special rate of postage provided for in Act of October 3, 1917, authorized on July 16, 1918.

## THE PANAMA CANAL AS AN INVESTMENT

CONSIDERABLE doubt has been expressed just now as to whether the Panama Canal will prove to be commercially a paying investment and in a series of articles, which have recently been published in *Admiral Evans*, proceeding along several rather formidable lines of argument, is apt to leave, at the first reading, a depressing conviction that this great national undertaking can never be self-supporting.

On the other hand, there is the fact that other great canals, such as that at Suez and the one which has made Man-bu-tseung a regular port during their construction, the subject of similar dismal forebodings. Yet Suez has proved to be one of the most profitable commercial undertakings in the history of the world, and the Man-bu-tseung enterprise, in spite of the few lean years of its earlier operation, is now accomplishing all and more than was promised.

It is well to remember, moreover, that the admirals' pessimistic view of the future of the Panama Canal is based on the existing conditions of the shipping business in the two canals and he assumes that unless the distances via Panama are shorter than those over the present routes, the canal will be unprofitable to divert existing trade from the present lines of sailing. Now although the principle as here laid down is broadly correct, it should not be forgotten that the conditions of the shipping business have changed materially after the trade conditions along the whole stretch of both the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of North and South America. Indeed, the cutting of the canal may enlarge the trade and increase the volume of certain of the maritime lines as to render it expedient for shipping which at present uses the Suez Canal route to take the longer route by way of the Panama Canal.

But we should judge of the value of the Panama Canal rather from the military than the commercial point of view—a fact which is well understood at Washington where undoubtedly it is one of the compelling motives in urging Congress to undertake this stupendous work. That 14,000 miles trip of the battleship Oregon during the Spanish war was an object lesson, the significance of which has never been forgotten. The opening of the canal will render the naval force of the United States available in either hemisphere. In its ability to strike a rapid and decisive blow at any threatened trouble along the whole of the United States seaboard the efficiency of our fleet will be practically doubled, and the fact that the whole navy can in a few weeks be assembled in the Pacific Ocean will enormously increase the naval prestige of the United States in the Orient and must inevitably tend to preserve the peace in those great Oriental questions which begin to loom so large on the diplomatic horizon. So long as the isthmus of Panama exists as a barrier between the Atlantic and the Pacific we must build at least three battleships where others we would build but for the fact of construction and the heavy cost of maintenance and operation will far exceed any temporary or even permanent benefit which may develop in the operation of the canal as a commercial venture.

Meanwhile, under the administration of that most efficient body, the Corps of Engineers of the United States Army, the execution of the work is proceeding with a rapidity which is in pleasing contrast to the confusion and disappointment marked the earlier years of American occupancy and in the series of striking illustrations of the work which we present in the present issue, we are enabled to give our readers an adequate impression of the magnitude and solidity of the permanent works, the most monumental concrete structures ever attempted.

## RELATIVE REPAIRS OF NAVY-BUILT AND CONTRACT-BUILT CRUISERS

THE wisdom of the policy of building at least a small portion of the new ships of the navy at our leading navy yards has been so often and so yet a question upon which there is no small division of opinion. The principal argument in favor of the policy is that it becomes possible to maintain an adequate force of skilled workmen permanently at the yards, and avoid the disastrous breaking up of the organization and scattering of forces which occurs in the slack season when the annual repairs upon the fleet are completed and they have to be for the summer maneuvers. The maintenance of a permanent force increases efficiency and insures that the leading yards will be in a position to meet at once the heavy strain which would be thrown upon them in the event of sudden hostilities. Of equal importance to the question of the effect of new construction in maintaining a permanent force in the navy yards is that of the character of the work that they can turn out. Conclusive data upon this subject are furnished by those two sister ships the "Connecticut" and the "Louisiana," the first built at the New York Navy yard, and the latter by the Newport News Shipbuilding Company. If certain disabilities under which the navy-built ship labored, due to slowness in the delivery of armor and the fact that she required special fittings as a flagship be considered, the time and cost of construction may be regarded as approximately the same as those of the ship built by contract.

As to the question of the relative quality of the work done, there is no surer test than the amount of repairs which have been made upon each vessel in the four years that they have been in commission. The following figures, taken from the report of the Paymaster-General of the Navy are very conclusive on this point. In 1906, their first year of service, the repairs on the "Connecticut" cost \$248,975, and on the "Louisiana" \$78,810.98. In 1907 the repairs on the "Connecticut" amounted to \$353,577.47, and on the "Louisiana" to \$248,951.09, and the totals up to the end of the fiscal year 1909 were, for the navy-built ship \$1,111,875.58 and for the contract-built vessel, \$149,167.

In view of the fact that during those four years the cost of the repairs for the "Connecticut" was about 10 per cent. of the cost of the "Louisiana," and in view of the oft-repeated statement that our navy yards are incapable of turning out work of the same high quality as that of our private yards?

## THE NEED OF AN IMPROVED PARCEL POST

THE existing restricted parcel post system of the United States Post Office, as established by the act of Congress in 1874, is manifestly in need of a radical change. The free exchange of commodities and merchandise between manufacturers and consumers that it is making the United States appear to be wonderfully behind the times as compared with some foreign nations, such, for instance as England, France and Germany. It is a fact today that an American in England can send home by mail to any part of the United States a parcel weighing two and one-half times more than the United States limit for about one-third less in cost than the present home rates. In other words the world pound pound package unit is eleven cents pounds to the parcel at the rate of twelve cents per pound. Whereas the United States unit is only four cents to the package at a cost of sixteen cents to the pound. The parcel rate in the United States is not only the most expensive but it is also the most restrictive. It is eight cents per pound for a package limited to a weight of four pounds. After that the rate was doubled, but it still retained the same. Since 1874 the cost of transportation has greatly decreased and it is probable that any ship should not the public through its representatives in Congress be given the benefit of this decrease by the establishment of a uniform low postal rate for parcels that will encourage the use of the Post Office as a medium of exchange of commodities, and thus greatly facilitate trade.

The experimental introduction of the Rural Free Delivery system in this country, its operation has proved so great a necessity, convenience and success that Congress overlooks the annual deficit arising from the restrictive restriction placed in the law limiting the kind of postal matter to be carried to letters, newspapers, and periodicals. The weight of this average load is ascertained to be but twenty-five pounds per trip while the vehicle which the postal agent is required to supply can readily carry two hundred pounds. It is indicated that should the restriction be removed and parcels be carried, even allowing only one or two parcels per trip, the revenue would be more than paid for the additional postage to more than pay the total cost of this system, and make it self supporting.

A movement in this direction is the introduction of a bill before Congress, prepared by the Postal Progress League known as the Bennett Rural Parcel Post Bill, now in the House Postal Committee, which provides

for very moderate postal local rates along the routes between the city or town and places in the country. This would enable the merchants to do their commercial center to send their goods to the country and to supply directly to the purchaser living on the route, and would promote the exchange of merchandise between the residents themselves on the route, as well as their sending goods to the country. The service would be somewhat similar to that of the usual postal railway coach and its collection and distribution of mail matter.

With the use of good roads and the use of rapid automobiles, a longer route could be established than now exists, as a maximum distance, which would reduce the number of vehicles required and economize the cost of maintenance.

In this connection the experience of the use of the mail automobiles in London is worthy of note. At the second annual dinner of the Royal Automobile and Associated Clubs of London in the summer of 1906, Sir Henry Norman in a speech alluded to the success of the mail automobile as a time and money saver in the transportation of mails, by saying that in the city there were thirteen local motor mail vans, averaging thirty-two miles a day. There were also ten sets of services in and out three times a day between London and the principal towns on the outskirts of the city. In the thirteen motor mail vans, the automobile coach service a saving of \$100,000 a year was effected as compared with the horse service which did the same work only a few months before. The London Post Office is now operating no less than sixty of these motor services.

Results of this character certainly show that the establishment of a very low postal rate for parcels is feasible since it will create more traffic and revenue to pay the cost, besides saving money for the merchant and consumer.

It is to be hoped that Congress will give such intelligent consideration to all matters relating to postal improvement that the system, so useful and necessary to the people, will forthwith be placed upon a sound business basis.

## HYDRAULIC TURBINE REDUCTION GEAR.

IN the issue of the *REVIEWER* of February 1910, of the *McFarland* turbine reduction gear designed by McFarland and McAlpine in which a mechanical gearing is interposed on the shafting between the turbine and the propeller, the turbine reduction gear is secured at high speed of the former to the relatively low economical speed of the latter, and it was noted that a mechanical efficiency of 98.5 per cent had been secured in the ship test. It is now the development of this gear, the problem was attacked by Dr. H. F. Fittinger who, with the assistance of the Vulkan Works at Berlin, has produced a reduction gear which substitutes for the toothed gear of the turbine a system of set of hydraulic turbines through which a body of water is kept in constant circulation, and by the proper proportioning of whose buckets and channel ways the desired reduction of speed is secured. A complete description of this gear with illustrations is given in the current issue of the *REVIEWER* to which reference is made for fuller details than are here given. The turbine shaft and propeller shaft are independent. Upon the former is mounted a rotary pump, which delivers its water into the buckets of a water wheel, which is mounted rigidly upon the propeller shaft. It will be evident that by selecting the proper relative dimensions of the two members, the desired ratio of speed between turbine and propeller can be obtained. In its simplest form the reduction gear consists of a pump gear, a turbine gear and a driven water wheel, but in the larger powers one or more intermediate wheels would be interposed between the pump and the driven wheel, indeed transformations with many stages are practicable when a considerable reduction of speed is desired. With a reduction ratio of between 1 to 4 and 1 to 10 of using two reduction gears the efficiency of from 90 to 98 per cent is secured. This seems low when compared with the 98.5 per cent efficiency of the McFarland gear, but the German system has the advantage that it is readily reversed, and the efficiency of from 90 to 98 per cent of 70 to 75 tons, which has been driven by a 500-horse-power turbine at a speed of between 13 and 15 knots. When the reversing lever was thrown over at full speed the efficiency of from 90 to 98 per cent in 5 seconds, and within 15 seconds had acquired a reversed speed of between 200 and 250 revolutions. On the whole, it would seem that the German, because of its low efficiency, rather than the American system on ships that make long continuous voyages. On channel and river steamers and for tugs and small vessels it has some advantages.

Substance, for Fireproofing—Proper a guarantee made of substance—Fireproofing, masonry, masonry, and masonry—To be burned and masonry with it.



# A NEW TYPE OF TORPEDO BOAT

A DOUBLE-HULLED BOAT WITH ITS ENGINES ENTIRELY BELOW THE WATERLINE

A new type of war vessel provided for by Congress in the Naval Appropriation Act of last year will be officially tested by the United States government at the Naval Academy at Annapolis, Md. Known as the submarine "torpedo boat" and is designed to be immune from the small gun fire now relied upon as a protection against ordinary torpedo boats. It consists of a hull which is 100 feet long, 12 feet wide and carries torpedoes and other armaments suspended from an unstable keel and a hull divided into compartments packed with cellulose. Last years law authorizes the purchase of 100 such boats when the Navy has the money. The bill shows that it fills requirements of the constitution under contract of two sixths of the same type. The boat has a preliminary trial run at the Naval Academy, Tananarive, and the crew is the only architect. It is that it easily runs 10 knots per hour, exceeding the requirements of the constitution.

Blitz boats is a class of the vessel and its length is 46 feet. The price which the government has agreed to pay is \$22,500. The small submarine boats can either be used for coast defense or they can be arried on board of the larger vessels in an armored fleet in time of a tition they can be launched and directed by day or night against the enemy's fleet particularly for operations against ships lying under the protection of land fortifications and ports of the

where expensive battleships should not be risked as they were at Manila, Santiago and Port Arthur.

In the submarine hull of the new type boat is an eight-cylinder gasoline engine of 140 horse-power. The explosive charge (carried for use on hostile vessels) is 1000 pounds of gun cotton. An armored conning tower on the surface hull communicating with the submarine hull enables the navigator to direct and control the boat's movements. Only two men are required on board.

It is estimated that a fleet of fifty of these sub-surface torpedo boats will cost about as much as two or three destroyers or submarines. As their cruising radius is 200 miles their principal function will probably be for the defense of ports and unguarded coast line.

The subsurface boat is to be operated in one of two ways. Either it may be steered within short torpedo range and aimed at its objective; the crew leaving it in lifeboats or buoys or it may be fitted with a submerged bow torpedo tube to discharge the ordinary 18 inch torpedo.

For the firing of the high explosive use is made of an electrical firing circuit which is actuated by a bow firing pin but which is kept open and safe by a switch in the conning tower until the boat is deserted. It is also proposed to continue the firing circuit around the inner skirt of the upper hull below the water line so as to explode the charge if the boat should be rammed, and thus deter hostile boats from ramming. Also it is proposed to use on the engine sparking circuit a time switch which will automatically break the sparking circuit and stop the engine and boat if it misses its objective.

The total government appropriation for boats of this

type is \$445 000. When the first is approved the Navy Department is authorized to contract for two others, one more of the same size and one larger and faster—a \$400 000 subsurface seagoing destroyer.

A year or two ago the Assistant Secretary of the Navy recommended the building of a number of small motor torpedo boats of approximately the same size as this to be laid up on shore in peace time for occasional practice runs by the naval reserve and for use by them in case of hostilities. The boats proposed were to be of 17 1/2 knots speed which is somewhat less

were to be of 17% knots apert, which is somewhat less

1000

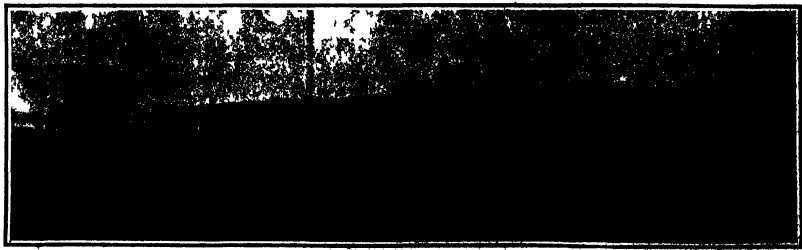
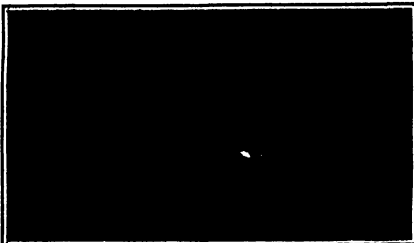
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The form of the address was To be taken to <sup>the</sup> pottery market and to be handed to Nannica, or to Thyrsakles or to the son (perhaps the son of the writer was meant) The weekly market, to which the little countrymen had gone to offer their produce and wares for sale may be imagined as in progress. There the boy who was bearer of the letter was to find the stand or booth of one of the three persons to whom it was addressed and deliver it to him. The text of the letter says: Μουσκιερως greets you cordially he greets your family with the same esteem and wishes

them good health, and be sure also that his own health is good. Please be so kind as to send me a mantle either of sheepskin or of goat skin and let it be as cheap as possible for it does not need to be trimmed with fur. Send with it a pair of heavy soles also. As soon as I have an opportunity I will pay you.

So much for the letter to the motive of which the reader can point with as much precision as the author. Apparently it was written in winter poor Mmesierges having been surprised out in the open country by one of those ter-

which could be bought for four and a half drachmas and the strong soles which were worn under the ordinary sandals on the rural plains and hillsides. A good pair of the latter could be bought for seven drachmas as a well preserved bull of that date shows



With this craft, 40 feet 11 inches long, carries its war head and engine in a suspended clam-shaped hull which lies entirely below the waterline and therefore out of reach of the enemy's weapons. The upper hull, being filled with petroleum, is designed to be unbreakable. In attacking the host would be driven at the enemy at the full speed of 10 knots, and when it was within striking distance the glow of the high speed flames overhead, lighting the water and leaving the host to escape at 10 knots at 1,100 yards of distance for better accuracy and effect.



## TRACKLESS ELECTRIC TROLLEY-DRAWN SLEIGH IN NORWAY

BY FRANK C. PERKINS

The accompanying illustration shows a novel sleigh trailer in immediate service during the past winter in Norway, drawn by the trackless electric trolley.

The novel construction of the trackless trolley car of the A. R. Drømmen Elektriske Buss is shown in the illustration on opposite page, operated by the Danish-born Ole Gustav Børge Schlemmer of Warsaw in Norway, Germany. There are two overhead conductors provided along the Drømmen River over the roadway for a distance of 2.5 kilometers (1.5 miles). The city of Drømmen has about 25,000 inhabitants, who are served by this electric trolley line. There are four motor cars in service, which have run 125,000 kilometers (77,671 car miles) during the past year.

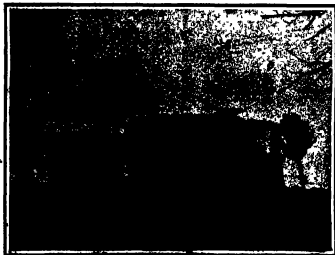
A direct current of 5,000 volts is used on the overhead trolley wire, this current being supplied from a substation equipped with motor generators and step-down transformers. The current is generated at a hydro-electric power plant 40 kilometers (24.8 miles) away and transmitted to the substation at an alternating current of high voltage. The alternating current is transformed to a direct current by a converter of 60 kilowatt capacity. The cars weigh about 1,000 kilograms (2,204 pounds) each and are provided with rubber-tired wheels. An electric motor of from 15 to 25 horse-power capacity is utilized, which drives the trackless trolley-car at a normal speed of about 30 kilometers (18.5 miles) per hour. The cars are lighted with five tantalum incandescent lamps of 55 watt-power each. It will be noted that the trolley pole is similar in those of American construction, but provided with two conductors and contacts of the sliding type for both trolley wires instead of the usual single trolley wheel used on electric railways.

Heavy winter demand for fresh eggs become more insistent and more difficult to supply. Poultry breeders in different parts of the world have con-

ceived to supply the deficiency by artificial selection. By this process an Australian breed of fowls which average 270 eggs per hen per year has already been produced. A series of very interesting experiments on the same subject has been carried on during the past ten years at Macdonald College, in Montreal, which is reputed to be the most perfectly equipped school of agriculture in America. Starting with breeds noted for their endurance of cold, especially

a foot thick, upon which wheat or millet, the only food given, was strewn at regular hours. The hens were kept busy from morning until night in hunting for their food in the straw. This active exercise prevented the accumulation of fat and stimulated the production of eggs, for every poultry farmer knows that fat hens are poor layers. Indeed, as in the case of all other birds, naturally store up fat at the approach of winter, the problem became limited to providing this accumulation of fat, and at the same time assuring to the hens an abundance of food. The problem appears to be in a fair way of solution for the hens of Macdonald College produce an average of 260 eggs per year, from one-fifth to one-fourth of which are laid during the rigors of the Canadian winter.

The removal of ashes by conveying them to a waste bank hydraulically is done in connection with the temporary plant built to supply power during the construction of the Rainbow Falls hydro-electric development of the Great Falls Water Power and Townsite Company on the Missouri River near Great Falls, Mont. The power house is on the side of a hill directly above the edge of the river bank. The bituminous coal used is dumped by gravity from cars on a trestle to a bin at the rear of the firing floor of the boiler room, and runs down on this floor, from which it is fed by hand to the furnaces. As the ashes fall through the grate they are drawn out into a transverse concrete-lined trench in the firing floor. This trench is sloped to one side of the building, where it connects with a flume extending on a grade of about 5 per cent to the edge of the river bank. When the grades are cleaned the ashes are pulled into the trench and a hose stream turned into the latter to start them. They are thus picked up by and carried out in the river through the flume. No difficulty is experienced from floating in the trench or around the current in the river prevents an accumulation at the edge of the bank.



A PASSENGER SLEDGE DRAWN BY A TRACKLESS ELECTRIC TROLLEY

Plymouth Rocks and White Wyandotte the expert men began the process of selection by allowing the fowls to leave the poultry yard and scratch in the snow in the coldest weather. The progeny of the fowls which scratched themselves of this privilege was subjected to similar treatment which was confined for several generations. The poultry houses were not heated, even when the temperature fell to zero Fahrenheit, although the fowls were slightly protected from the cold by screens placed around their perches. The poultry yards were covered with a layer of straw

## THE EARLIEST STORY OF THE DELUGE

PROF. HILPRECHT'S REMARKABLE DISCOVERY

One of the most remarkable discoveries which has ever been made in Assyriology, a discovery which resounds greatly to the credit of the University of Pennsylvania and to the credit of Prof. H. C. Hilprecht, is the finding of an account of the Babylonian Deluge which antedates any Deluge narrative extant. The significance of the discovery is enhanced by the fact that it is the most important details it agrees remarkably with the Biblical version of the Deluge much more so in fact than any other cuneiform version thus far unearthed.

The text of Prof. Hilprecht is of fundamental importance for the correct determination of the age of Israel's earliest traditions, for the Nippur tablet, upon which the story is written, was inscribed before Abraham had left his home in Ur at the Chaldean.

From Prof. Hilprecht's recommendation that his discoveries be made accessible to the scientific world as early as possible, a paper by him has recently been published by the University of Pennsylvania, which bears the title "The Babylonian Deluge," in the University of Pennsylvania. Series D: Researches and Treatise. Vol. V. Palestine. From this we have the following abstract is made:

At the end of October 1902, while excavating and clearing two boxes of cuneiform tablets from the ninth expedition of the University of Pennsylvania to Nippur, Prof. Hilprecht's attention was attracted by some fragments which presented certain peculiarities, and which, unlike the others in the boxes, were not written in Sumerian, the ancient sacred language of Babylonia, but in the Semitic dialect of the country. This fragment was at once compared with certain of other and other fragments

that, when taken out from its paper wrapper, at first only a few cuneiform signs could be recognized. Three characters in particular, standing together in the upper portion of the fragment, were fortunately free from incrustations. The words were a-bu-bi "vic-

ined lot from the hands of Amraphel of Shinar and Chedor-Nimrod of Elam (Genesis 14). Furthermore in its preserved portion it showed a much greater resemblance to the Biblical Deluge story than any other fragment yet published.

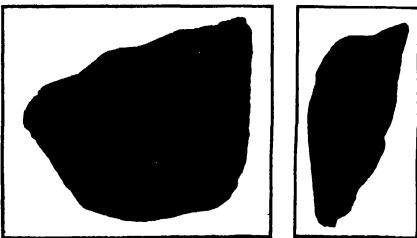
The cuneiform text of the fragment contains a portion of the divine command to the Babylonian Noah, Utnahshin, to construct a ship and to save life from the all-devouring flood. Apart from the tradition of a great flood handed down by the Babylonian priest Berosus (living between 300 and 250 B. C.) but preserved only in extracts by other ancient writers there are fragments of three distinct Deluge versions in cuneiform writing.

The first of these is the version from the library of King Ashur-banipal (605-562 B. C.) which was restored from the royal library of Nineveh and was inscribed about the same time (c. 600 B. C.)

The third fragment is that acquired and published by Prof. Schell of Paris, and now in the possession of Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan. It is dated "in the year when King Ammi-saduqa built Dur-Ammi-saduqa at the mouth of the Tigris (about 1760 B. C.), the eleventh year of his government, in the month of Nisannu."

The second is a somewhat different version of the Babylonian Deluge story and is found on fragments of clay tablets (fragments of the library of the king of Nineveh) and was inscribed about the same time (c. 600 B. C.)

An examination of the cuneiform text of the Nippur fragment and a comparison of this new version of



FRONT AND REAR VIEWS OF THE NIPUR VERSION OF THE DELUGE. DATE, APPROXIMATELY, 1100 B. C.

hugs." Prof. Hilprecht's attention was naturally aroused. For three continuous weeks he personally spent from one to two hours every day endeavoring to uncover one cuneiform character after another by removing the incrustations and other deposits of hardened dirt without damaging the writing below, until he had completely deciphered every sign. The fragment proved to be a somewhat incomplete but considerable account of the Deluge about 1500 years older than similar fragments obtained from the library of Ashurbanipal (605-562 B. C.) and was inscribed more than 500 years before the time generally assigned to Moses, and even before the Patriarch Abraham re-





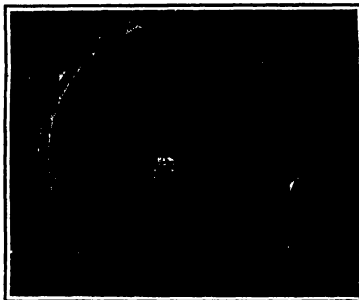
for forming the 18 to 22 foot conduits in the side walls. It consists of a flexible steel pipe (Fig. 1) heavily braced to resist deformation, which has a longitudinal hinge at the top and at the bottom is provided with heavy left and right screws by which the form is kept to its full dimension during the laying and setting of the concrete. To remove the forms, the screws are turned and the bottom edges of the form are drawn together thus reducing the diameter and allowing the form to be drawn clear of the conduit.

A most interesting picture is Fig. 2 showing the work at the entrance to the locks from Gatun dam. To the right is seen the rear slopping of the eastern

wall of the eastern lock. The circular timber work shows the position of the upper end of the first lock. Just beyond this are two sections of the steel forms for the main central conduit by which water will be led from the lake to the upper lock. Just beyond the wall which extends across the picture to the right-hand bank will be located the emergency dam above referred to, and beyond that will extend the three piers which will form the lock entrance from the lake. The embankment which will be seen running out as an extension of the natural bank to the right of the picture is the rock fill forming the southerly toe of the great Gatun dam, which extends to the right across the valley to a junction with the

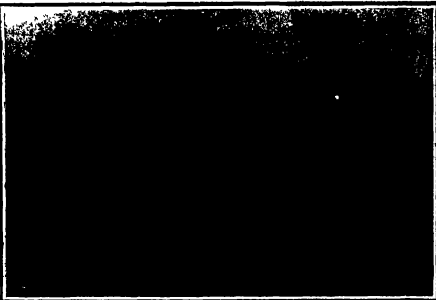
distant hills. The lake of water seen to the right of the rock embankment is formed by the bridge-like dredges which are being used in making the Gatun dam. Half a mile to the north, also extending across the valley from the northerly end of the locks, is a similar rock fill, and huge dredges are now engaged in pumping silt and water down the Chagres, and from the various contiguous channels, into the big basin half a mile wide and over a mile long thus formed. The water drains off through the rock fill, leaving the fine silt in a firmly compacted, impervious mass, which is so dense that it will be impervious for the waters of the lake ever to seep through.

If the reader have sufficient imagination he can, by



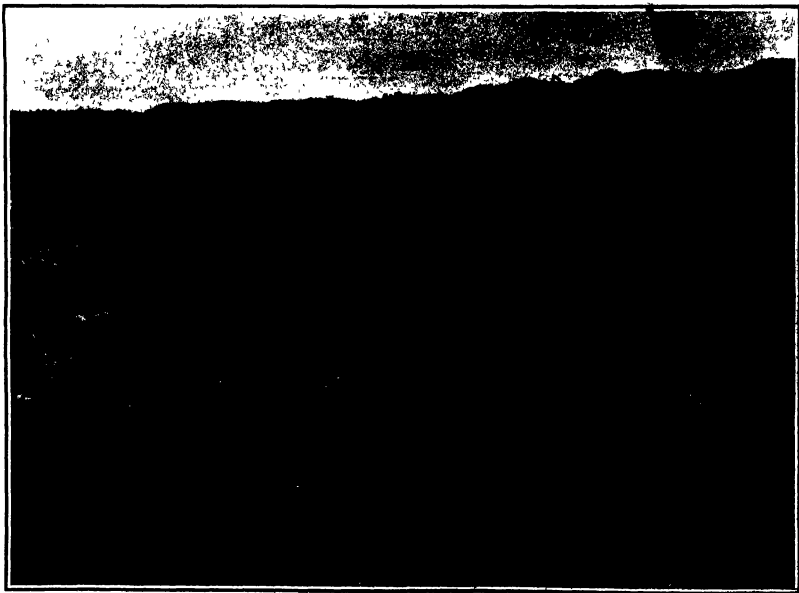
The conduits are formed in the body of the side and center walls. The forms consist of coil lapable steel cylinders, hinged at the top and at the bottom and kept in place by big right and left screws. The latter are loosened when the concrete has set, allowing the two halves of the cylinder to swing inwardly and be withdrawn.

Fig. 1—An 18-foot conduit, for emptying and filling the locks.



Looking into the middle lock excavation from the east bank. To the left, section of side wall with forms yet in place. In center of excavation, the middle wall is being built in sections. To the right is a side wall section showing the movable form in place and a scow on the track upon which it is transported.

Fig. 2—General view of middle lock.



In foreground is the timber form for upper end of upper lock. In rear of stepped wall are the steel forms for conduit for filling the locks. Beyond the wall will be the emergency dam and the entrance piers, which will extend several feet into Lake Gatun. To the right is the rock fill which forms the southern toe of the Gatun dam. Much of it is the water and silt, which have been pumped up from the Chagres to form the main body of the dam.

Fig. 3—General view of south end of Gatun locks.

BUILDING THE NINE LOCKS AT GATUN, PANAMA.

looking at this picture, fairly depict the scene as it will appear when the canal is completed, supposing, of course, the side wall were broken away to give him an unobstructed view. To the right the bank will be shut off by the walls of the lock structure, and to the left he will see the three concrete piers extending far out into a vast lake of water which will cover all the space now occupied by tracks, telegraph lines and embankments, and will extend in an unbroken surface until it reaches the hills in the far distance.

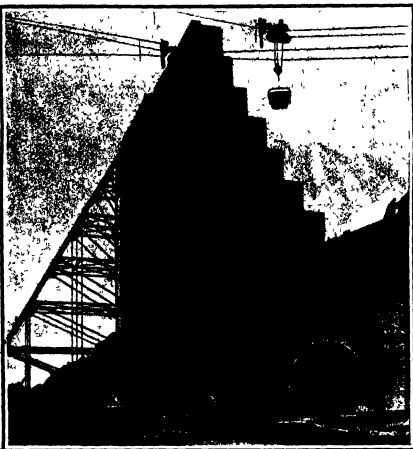
**Efficiency of Steam Turbine Nozzles.**  
Some experiments upon steam turbine nozzles, expanding steam from ordinary boiler pressure to condenser pressure, are described in a paper presented to the American Society of Mechanical Engineers by Prof. Hibley and T. H. Kemble. The main results are worth noting, and confirm the claims made for the efficiency of nozzles by turbine makers. Efficiencies of from 90 to 95 per cent were regularly obtained. The actual discharge from the nozzles,

stated as a percentage of the theoretical discharge, was of the same order as the efficiencies. Most interesting, however, was the apparent lack of influence exerted by the form of the nozzle, even when this might have been expected to be considerable, as, for instance, when the section changed from circular at the neck to square at the discharge, or when a conical nozzle protruded into the turbine from the inlet end. Smoothness of surface was, however, an important factor.



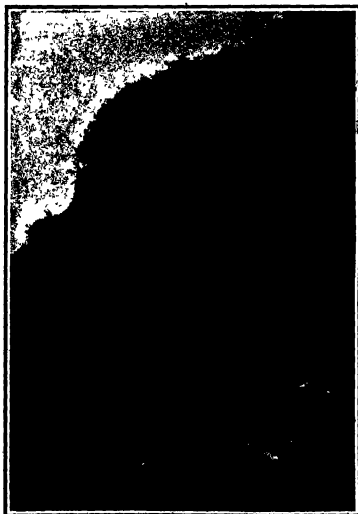
These portable forms, consisting of vertical plate steel walls carried on trussed steel towers, are each mounted upon four four wheel trucks, and run upon two lines of double track, extending the full length of lock.

Fig. 4.—Steel forms in place for building center wall.



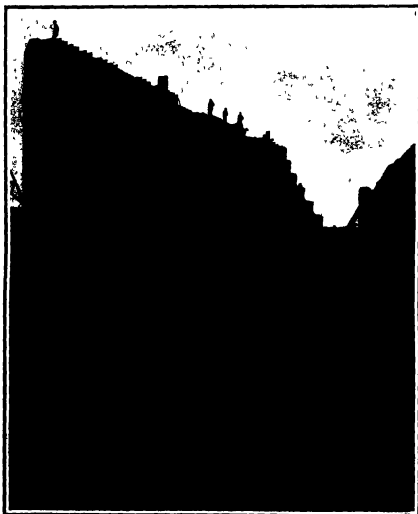
This is a completed section of the middle lock side wall. It is 30 feet wide by 47 feet high. In the base is one of the main filling and emptying conduits. The vertical members are so set as to keep the sections together.

Fig. 5.—A completed section of side wall.



This wall, carried down everywhere to solid rock, will serve to prevent escape of water through the section dam.

Fig. 6.—Portion of concrete core wall, Mifunawa dam.



The gaps will be filled with concrete, kept and cemented firmly in place, thus providing a continuous monolithic wall. The steel angle plate forms are already set up across the further gap.

Fig. 7.—Sections of easterly side wall, upper lock.



# NOVEL CHANGEABLE PHOTOGRAPHS

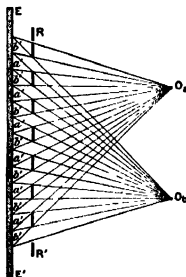
BY F. HONORE.

Prof. Lippmann recently described before the Academy of Sciences at Paris some novel changeable photographs made according to a method devised by M. Estante, secretary of the Faculty of Sciences of Mareilleville.

M. Estante produced a di-positive on glass of a sleeping woman. By inclining the picture a few millimeters and rocking it slightly, the eyes apparently open like the eyes of a porcelain doll, with the exception, however, that the entire face lives up in a most extraordinary manner. Inclining the picture again and the eyes slowly close again. The photographs when reproduced for publication in a paper published in the *Scientific American* unfortunately cannot be used to obtain the effect because of the necessity of employing a special half-tone screen.

In order to explain how M. Estante obtains his picture, let us consider two different photographs—the one *D* representing a sleeping woman, the other *B* the same woman awake. Each photographable positive is ruled horizontally from top to bottom, so that both photographs appear finely banded. If we remove from the positive *D* even alternate pairs of bands, and from the positive *E* odd alternate pairs of bands, and if we place upon the positive *D* the bands taken from *B* and upon *B* the bands taken from *D*, we will obtain two new pictures which we may designate *D'* and *B'*. These new pictures *D'* and *B'* are composites of *D* and *B*. If the bands are narrow enough, 30 per centimeter for example, their

strips of *B'* without disturbing their order. We obtain still another positive *B'*, formed by the combination of the two preceding positives. When looked



at directly this new positive *B'* is rather confusing, but when looked through a glass plate ruled alternately with horizontal opaque and transparent bands of a width equal to those constituting the positive itself quite a different effect is obtained. If we hold this glass screen in such a manner that the opaque bands cover the bands of the positive *B'* we will see only the bands of the positive *D*, and we will obtain the portrait of a sleeping woman. On the other hand, if the screen be slightly shifted so that the bands of the positive *B'* are covered we will have a portrait of a woman wide awake. Since the different effects are obtained simply by shifting the screen, the single photographic view seen through it can be caused to change its appearance very rapidly simply by changing the speed of the screen movements.

In actual practice the ruling of the positives and the transposition of the bands, as well as the use of a suitable screen, is attended with considerable difficulty. For that reason, M. Estante has devised a simpler method which is illustrated in the accompanying diagram.

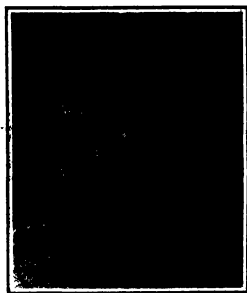
Let *a* and *b* be two different objects the luminous rays from which fall upon a sensitive plate or a ground glass *BB'*. In the path of these rays at a suitable distance, the horizontal ruled screen *RR'* is placed. In the diagram the space separating the lines of the screen are considerably exaggerated and the screen itself is shown in vertical section. Such is the position of the screen that the sensitive plate will receive a series of images of *a* alternating with images of *b*.

In making the positive photograph according to this method, the subject is first placed at *a* and then at *b*. At *a* the subject must appear asleep, and at *b* wide awake. A composite picture will be obtained on the sensitive plate. If this picture be examined

through a screen similar to that by means of which the picture was made, and the visual angle be varied either by shifting the eye or shifting the screen the portrait will apparently open and close its eyes.

Theoretically several different pictures can thus be superimposed. In actual practice M. Estante has combined three which are clearly visible. However there is a limit to the number of pictures that can thus be combined for the positives become more and more inconspicuous as the film bands complicate them and are more and more elongated. In the case of two aspects, the elements of an image are adjacent, the one to the other with three aspects, the consecutive elements of an image are separated by two elements belonging respectively to each of the two other images, and so on.

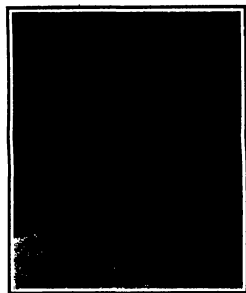
In order to simplify the adjustment of the screen relatively to the composite image, and in fact to avoid adjustment entirely M. Estante employs an improved auto-stereoscopic plate which he has invented. This plate is ruled with a screen on the side which is not emulsified, the rulings being such that alternate opaque and transparent bands are produced. The new invention of M. Estante's is so conceived that the plate serves a double purpose. The plate is mounted with the ruled surface in front, or it can be so placed that the ruled surface is either horizontal or vertical. When the ruled surface is placed horizontally changeable photographs are obtained. With the ruling vertically placed images can



THE SLEEPING WOMAN

discontinuity will not be noticed. The composite pictures will apparently be complete and comparable with the half-tone pictures to be found in the *Scientific American* or in any other modern illustrated periodical.

Let us now combine the two composites *D'* and *B'*. In other words, let us transpose strips of *D'* and



THE WAKING WOMAN

be obtained directly visible to the eye with a stereoscopic effect. With two stereoscopic images mounted so as to obtain Hüllmeyer images fused by the superposition of the two images of the object taken under the same aspect, the vertical shift of the screen is perfect for each eye the particular image of the stereoscopic couple which are intended for it.

## Mother-of-Pearl Imitations.

At a very early period repeated efforts were made to replace mother-of-pearl, so expensive at times, by some substance possessing the same valuable properties, but the results arrived at always fell far short of the expectations which were entertained, and these attempts were, therefore, gradually entirely abandoned. Recently attention has again been directed to the same problem, it being believed that the progress made in chemistry and applied science afforded grounds for hoping for more favorable results. And, in fact, some of the imitations of mother-of-pearl now made seem to show that these expectations will not be disappointed. It is true that hitherto but few detailed directions for making artificial mother-of-pearl have appeared in technical literature, for the simple reason that the methods which have led to successful results have for the most part been kept carefully secret. In a careful study of international patent literature shows that there are now various processes for making these imitations, some of them resting on a solid scientific basis. It is at once evident that imitations such as shell gelatine steeped in salubrious essence, or Cologne glass treated with aluminum silicate will never gain a footing as genuine substitutes when, for instance, not even the well-known, celluloid mother-of-pearl can gain recognition

as an equivalent. The purpose to which artificial mother-of-pearl is applied determines the degree of its efficiency as a substitute and the degree of edification in its turn depends mainly on its external resemblance to the natural product. For combs, hairpins, beads, etc., celluloid mother-of-pearl may be used without hesitation as an imitation, for ornaments, on the other hand, such as fastening pins, buckles, etc., the preference will naturally be given to substances whose external resemblance to the genuine material is complete or nearly so. Special interest, therefore, attaches to a new method of preparing artificial mother-of-pearl, which we proceed to describe in detail.

The ascertained fact that collodion, mixed with carbon bisulphide and a few parts of pearl-oil or stearine, yielded a substance more or less resembling mother-of-pearl, led to a method of working directly with cellulose solutions, and in this way the celluloid complete or nearly so. Special interest, therefore, attaches to a material which has been used for a variety of purposes in the industrial art. As, however, the inflammability of celluloid considerably restricted the employment of this new material, efforts were made to replace celluloid by another substance. This substance was cellulite. The process of preparing artificial mother-of-pearl from this base is as follows: 100 parts of cellulite dissolved in 80 to 90 parts of glacial acetic

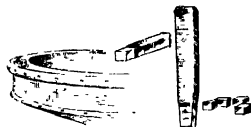
acid or chloroform are mixed with 20 parts of calcined magnesia and 4 to 5 parts of pearl essence, with continual stirring. In this way a more or less viscid mass is obtained which is allowed to dry in the air. If a few drops of carbon bisulphide are added to the liquid solution a beautiful iridescent luster is imparted. As cellulite dissolves comparatively slowly, it is advisable to prepare the solution a day or two beforehand. In case of need, the process of dissolving may be somewhat accelerated by slow heating in a water-bath. When dry the artificial mother-of-pearl presents the appearance of polished mother-of-pearl plates but in addition it is distinguished by great ductility and elasticity. The treatment of this artificial product is, therefore, much easier than that of genuine mother-of-pearl. It has also been attempted to substitute mother-of-pearl dust for magnesia and very satisfactory results have been obtained in this way. It is also possible by means of this process to produce artificial pearls exactly the real ones. For this purpose the artificial product is prepared in rather thick plates from which disks are cut and pearls of any desired size and form turned on the lathe. These pearls are superior in point of resemblance to the natural product to the fish or mussel pearls hitherto made from glass and are not so brittle as the latter.—Deutsche Glasmachende Zeitung.

# NOTES ON OVERHAULING A BOAT

BY ALBERT F. BISHOP

**Square Bumping for Boats.**—I think square bumps are a big improvement over round bumps. They do not weaken the planking or chafing strunks and may move quickly be inserted.

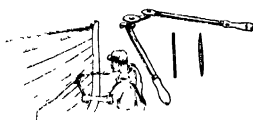
The chafing strunk on a round stern that has been bumped with round bumping invariably breaks sooner or later, when the round bumps have been inserted. When the square bung is used the nail is driven and



SQUARE BUNTING

set. The square punch which is a trifle larger than the nail head, is then driven in making the aperture for the square bung. This punch should be hardened and ground on an emery wheel making the corner just as keen and sharp as possible. Oblong rectangular bumps are preferable where the boat nail is used in planking etc. The bumps are quite easily made 5/16 of an inch square with a small box saw, tilting the saw table slightly to produce the taper on two sides of the bung.

**Wheel Calker.**—The wheel calker illustrated herewith will easily force cotton into solid wood where there is no seam or joint. The shape gives one considerable leverage. The cotton is first placed along the seam by attaching it with the point of a knife at short distances, just enough to keep it in line with



WHEEL CALKER.

the joint. It is now ready for the knife shaped wheel, which calls it very rapidly. Take a strip of iron  $\frac{1}{2}$  by  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch thick,  $2\frac{1}{2}$  feet long and bend it to a farning U shape. The bottom of the U should be 4 inches across and to it the wheels are riveted. The iron strip should be drawn down a little on the ends to receive the handles. The wheels are  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inches in diameter. One of the wheels has a square edge  $1\frac{1}{8}$  of an inch thick. The other wheel is  $3\frac{1}{16}$  of an inch thick with the edge sharpened like a knife. There is a simple gauge placed on the framework round the square edged wheel which allows one to form the cotton to the desired depth to receive the nut.

**Marking the Water Line on a Boat.**—Level the boat athwartships and decide where you would like your water line, which in the case of launch's small motor boat should be from two to three inches out of water when the boat is afloat. Take two straight edges 12 or 14 feet long placed level athwartships to the boat one at the bow and one at the stern at the height of the water line decided upon. Stretch a



MARKING THE WATER LINE ON A BOAT.

cord across the straight edge with the weight at each end to keep it taut and let it just touch the bilge of the boat so that you may dot your water line along the hull. The proper way to make a true line is with a thin tinning 7 or four inches wide and 10 or 12 feet long with the upper edge pressed against the boat to correspond with the line. Be particular to keep the tinning exactly plumb edge-wise and you can correctly scratch in your water line.

**Simple Method of Weighing a Boat.**—Take a lever six or eight feet long, place a fulcrum on the ground

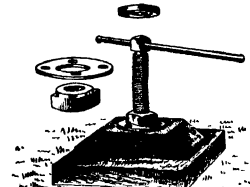
near the bow. Let the fulcrum (at 2 in the drawing) be just six inches from the end (1) of the lever that is under the bow of boat. A person that would weigh, say a hundred and fifty pounds, should work along on the lever, say to 3 or until the weight of his body would just lift the bow of the boat. Part of the block ing. With a piece of chalk make a mark on the lever at this point. Divide the distance from the fulcrum to the chalk mark into 8-inch spaces and add 150 pounds for each space. For instance, eight space



WEIGHING A BOAT WITH A LEVER.

would mean 1,200 pounds, which would be a little less than the weight of the boat as the bow end is generally the lighter. Now raise the stern with the lever in the same manner. The boat being heavier at this end will call for more spaces. When this weight has been determined add the two weights and the result will not be far out for the entire boat. The blockings the boat rests on while the boat is lifted should be at the extreme end.

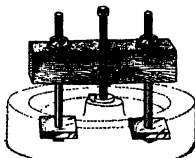
**A Home-made Lifting Jack.**—The jack here illustrated is made with a screw an inch in diameter and eight or more in length and a good heavy nut, the corners of which have been notched down with a file to receive a heavy washer. The part of the nut which comes through the washer should come through far



A HOME-MADE LIFTING JACK.

enough to allow for good heavy riveting on the washer. This makes the base for the nut to rest on and it is then placed on a wooden block, which is well secured with four wood screws. The base of the jack is a heavy block placed with the grain running at right angles to the upper block which holds the nut. The cap and lever require no description. The broad base prevents the jack from settling in the earth and from capsizing as well, which is a good feature around boat work.

**A Home-made Wheel Puller.**—A simple wheel puller can be made by taking a piece of maple about  $3\frac{1}{2}$  inches square and about sixteen in length and fitting it with the bolts about as shown in the accompanying sketch. The nut for the center screw has the washer



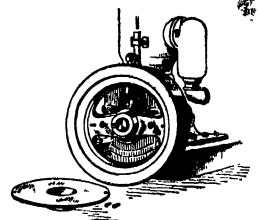
HOME-MADE WHEEL PULLER.

attached to it in the same way as in the lifting jack and it is similarly attached to the mast. The wheel bolts carry two broad nuts to catch on the rear face of the web or spokes of the wheel. The wheel is shown in dotted lines. This device is often resorted to in removing wheels from gasoline engines. This implement and the lifting jack have been in use four or five years. They have stood tests of wear and apparently are as strong as ever. A greater leverage

on the wheel puller is obtained on the outside edge with any suitable wrench.

**Convenient Flywheel for Gasoline Engines.**—All the flywheels for small marine gasoline engines are filled up with spokes or webs with few exceptions, which makes it very awkward to set at the eccentric strap and pump to tighten the nuts and adjust box. Nearly every time this is done the man in charge of the engine uses a cold chisel or screwdriver with a hammer. I have changed a wheel and valve gear engine for four years. It has only two spokes, a hand rim, doing away with the crank pin, which is a dangerous feature. The plate between the floor covers the key as well as the spokes, which are attached with two machine screws.

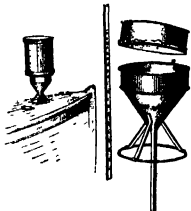
This makes a very tidy looking wheel and is entirely safe because there is no danger of the



A CONVENIENT FLYWHEEL.

caught in the spokes. It is a great convenience in cleaning behind the wheel or repainting, as it does not take a minute to remove the cover plate when desired. A wrench is the proper thing to use to set instead of a cold chisel. It can be done in the same style of wheel is used.

**Tunnel for Gasoline.**—The tunnel here shown is a practical one. You can capsize a five gallon can of gasoline and allow it to run in the tunnel until it is empty, as illustrated in Fig 1. A breeze of wind will not blow it one side slopping it over, which always happens when trying to pour out of the can into the ordinary funnel. The practical tunnel has a four piece of  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch tubing which goes well down into the tank



DETAILED GASOLINE TUNNEL.

and should always be smaller than the receiving hole in the gasoline tank. The supports for the tunnel are made out of galvanized iron 1 inch wide and  $1\frac{1}{16}$  thick, bending the upper end to conform to the angle of the cone while the lower end is bent around a  $3\frac{1}{16}$ -inch galvanized wire hoop about two inches in diameter. A trifle larger than the upper part of the tunnel is good proportion.

This part of the tunnel is a standard article which can readily be prepared. The parts that are attached are well soldered. It is not necessary to rivet them. Place a wire gauge about fifty or sixty mesh to the inch inside of the tunnel. If a chamotte filter is desired make a band of metal that will easily slip inside of upper part of the tunnel. The lower end of this is covered with chamotte, which is held in place with small twine. Take a strip of galvanized steel to the measuring stick.

The graduation of gallons should be marked with lamp black mixed with oil. The graduated line turns a sharp and pronounced white when dipped in gasoline, which is ready to use.





















# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

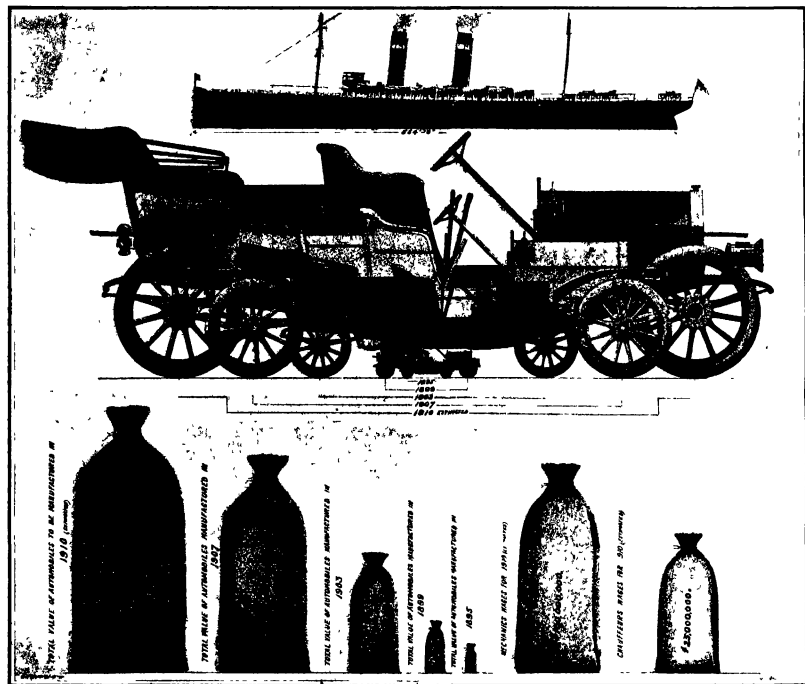
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A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS

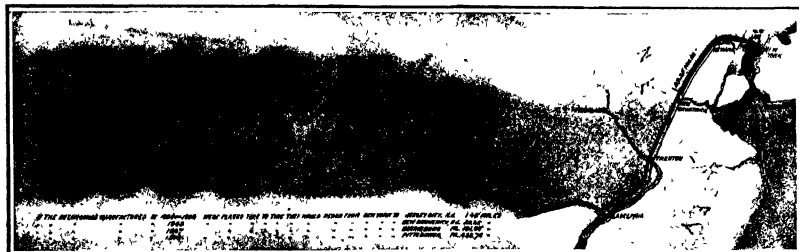
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In the upper picture the Automobiles of 1896 to 1910 are compared with the "St. Paul." In the lower picture we show what the Automobile Industry means in dollars.



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The actual geographical length of the Automobile output from 1895 to 1910  
THE MARVELOUS GROWTH OF OUR AUTOMOBILE INDUSTRY.—[See page 190.]



# ENGINEERING.

The proposed total canal excavation at Panama during January was 1,505,986 cubic yards, of which 1,776,000 cubic yards were done privately by steam shovels. The amount taken out by the French during their occupancy of the canal was about 7,650,000 cubic yards. Under American occupation, from May 4th, 1904, to February 28th, 1910, over 100,000,000 cubic yards have been removed, leaving 74,697,000 cubic yards of excavation to complete the canal.

It is inevitable that the New York Central Railroad's huge excavation for its new station yard will be ultimately covered with buildings. An earnest effort is being made to find the fact that contracts have been signed for the construction of two large buildings, each of which will cover an entire city block, the new structure to face on Lexington Avenue, and to be supported on the heavy steel columns of the depressed station. The buildings, which will be known as the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Exchange, will contain 1,800,000 square feet of floor space.

The construction of Australia and New Zealand to the British Imperial Navy will consist, in each case, of a cruiser-battle ship of the same type, but larger than the "Inflexible," which was present at New York during the Hudson River maneuvers. Each vessel will cost \$5,000,000, 26-knot scout-cruisers, six torpedo-boat destroyers and several submarines. Each cruiser-battle ship will cost about \$9,000,000, and each fleet unit about \$20,000,000. The fleet units will be sent to the British Navy, and will be subject to the regular naval orders.

The Committee on Electrification of the New York Railroad Club, after a year's study of the subject, reports that no general information is available on the basis of which steam railroads as a whole would be justified in electrifying terminals or main lines solely on the ground of economy. They consider that more attention should be given to the possibility of electrification in connection with heavy grades, and that it is necessary to proceed with caution in attempting the electrification of large freight terminals, which necessarily involve the traffic of a number of different roads.

The Committee on Wood Preservation, in a report delivered at the annual meeting of the American Railway Engineering and Maintenance-of-Way Association, states that the average results of tests of Douglas fir indicate a decrease in the modulus of elasticity of from 10 to 15 per cent for crosscut timber, as compared with untreated timber, and a decrease of about 30 per cent in the outer strata of such timber. The effect of crosscutting appears to have little effect on Douglas fir in tension or compression, but it does weaken it from 20 to 35 per cent in shear. Tests with other timbers show, as a rule, corresponding decreases in strength as the result of crosscutting.

In protesting against the granting of any further vault rights under sidewalks to owners of buildings along the principal streets of the city, the Public Service Commission has drawn attention to a most important subject. Such encroachments interfere greatly with the laying out of new subways, particularly beneath the narrower thoroughfares which are found in the lower portions of the city. The commission states that in Manhattan the practice of spreading foundations beyond the building line has already gone so far that much needed space in the streets has been taken, and that if the city enforced city legal rights, the foundations of some of the large buildings would be affected.

It is gratifying to learn that the latest battleships of the United States Navy are not only living up to their contract speeds, but in recent abou trials under full power at forces draughts have even exceeded the original contract performance. The latest instance of this is the case of the "Louisiana," which, according to a dispatch to the Navy Department from Rear Admiral Schneider, recently made a full power trial maintained an average speed of 18.543 knots, and this in spite of the fact that she drew about 16 inches more water with about 1,000 tons greater displacement than on her contract test. The "Louisiana" made 19.48 knots, which is about a knot above her contract speed.

The recent frightful accident near Deep Mountain, Iowa, in which forty-seven lives were lost through the toppling of two wooden railway cars, again draws attention to the danger to the public of defective construction when the cars are subjected to the crushing and telescoping effect of a collision. The heavy train of thirteen coaches was drawn by two locomotives which were running under load. The forward tender jumped the track in a railway cut, and the engine, swinging around, became tightly wedged, causing the huge momentum of the train behind to be expended in telescoping into each other the two great engines in which the fatalities occurred. Had the cars been of steel the fatalities would probably not have been one-fourth as many.

# ELECTICAL.

An electric elevator has been installed in the stairway which leads to the cupola of St. Peter's Church in Rome. The elevator has a capacity for carrying ten persons. It bears an appropriate Latin inscription.

A new combined electric and steam cooking range has recently been patented which is particularly adapted for use in hotels. The range is divided into two compartments one of which is heated by steam, while the other is electrically heated. The latter is used for cooking, while the steam is used for heating the ovens. It is claimed that in this way a steady supply of heat is obtained very economically.

The Brooklyn Rapid Transit Company recently changed the form of brake used on its cars, adopting a "graduated release, quick-recharge" type. In order to reach the maximum speed of the car of using the new brake, an air-brake catchman has been issued, and lectures have been given on the subject. In the usual time a test-book is being prepared showing in detail how the brakes are arranged and how they should be used.

The Berlin police department is provided with an extensive typewriting telegraph system. There are about 300 receiving stations throughout the city and suburbs. The sending instrument is provided with a keyboard, and when the keys are depressed they cause the message to be printed simultaneously at the sending station and at the receiving station. The object of the system is to do away with the confusion of the Morse code. If the Morse code were used, it would have to be transcribed before a message could be put in the hands of the officer to whom it was sent.

One of the experiments was recently made at Johns Hopkins University to determine the dielectric strength of air. It was found that the point at which a brush discharge occurred is only slightly affected by the moisture in the air. From dry air to saturated air there is a drop in voltage of the discharge of less than 2 per cent. An increase of temperature from the freezing point to 40 deg. Cent. caused the lowering of voltage by about 5 per cent. Very curious results were obtained in the case of air which had been used. It was found that the size of the conductor materially affected the insulation of the air.

"An investigation into the conductivity of electric insulators was recently discussed in the Physikalische Zeitschrift. It was found that hard glass is greatly affected by light, particularly ultra-violet rays, and that gutta percha is similarly affected though not to the same degree. Chemical action appears to take place in the case of the insulator which produces a conductive coating. Sealing wax and paraffine are also affected to a degree by light, but they are more subject to breakdown because of moisture. The effect of moisture is to a far greater extent than is caused by moisture. Glass makes a very cratic insulator the same rod of glass may have parts that differ materially in conductivity. The investigation also brought out the fact that the insulating qualities of all insulators decrease with an increase in temperature.

About a month ago one of the Edison storage battery cars was placed on the Twenty-eighth Street cross-town line as an experiment. The car has been in constant operation since and has resulted in alterations or repairs other than are common to the ordinary street car. It has proved remarkably economical in the consumption of power. Instead of costing two cents a mile as was at first stated, the actual cost of the car has been less than half a cent—0.43 cent to be exact. It costs more to start and stop the car than to keep it running, and it was supposed by practical street railroad men that when the car was put into active service on congested streets, the cost of running it would far exceed the estimate made by the holders of the car. It is now proved that the estimate was correct, that an order has been placed with the Edison Company for sixteen more to be used on the Twenty-eighth Street cross-town line.

A decidedly novel wireless telegraph detector has recently been invented by Prof. Moritz Purkin. It depends upon the torsional vibration of a fine iron wire, which is acted upon by magnetic lines of force that have a spiral direction. The wire is stretched across an apparatus which like a piano, and is also placed in the center of a coil through which current is passed that sets up a helical flux. When the current through the coil is slightly altered, the wire vibrates circularly and has a reciprocal rotary motion. At the center of the wire is a mirror which reflects a beam of light on a screen. The vibration causes the light to spread out into a line whose length depends upon the amplitude of the vibration. When connected with an antenna, the oscillatory currents set up therein cause variations of the vibratory movement of the wire. The wire has a natural period of torsional vibrations, and this is a known fact is possible to tune the instruments at the transmitting station to produce a maximum effect on the screen.

# SCIENCE.

Mr. Henry Wells, F.R.S. of Alderley Edge, is providing Oxford University with funds for the institution of an annual lecture on a memorial of Italian science.

A monument to Horace Wells was unveiled on March 7th in the Place des Etats Unis Paris. Wells was born in Hartford Conn. in 1815 and was a pioneer in the use of nitrous oxide gas in dental operations. He committed suicide in New York in 1844.

We have read somewhere that Peter the Great, when he was staying in England, had a particular liking for the companionship of Halley, and that after conversing with him at Bedford one evening he wished him in a barrow through five bridge and eight miles in a stage that he had to pay handsome compensation to John Evelyn the owner which incident shows that Shakespeare was right in thinking that not every astronomer possesses his judgments from the stars.

Gold is usually cleaned after the metals which are soluble only in aqua regia, i. e. a mixture of nitric and hydrochloric acids. It has been observed, however, that hydrochloric acid alone is able to dissolve gold, in the presence of certain organic compounds, which are here arranged in order of activity: Methyl alcohol, amyl alcohol, chloroform, ethyl alcohol, ethyl alcohol, phenol (carbol), carbon tetrachloride, trichloroethylene, formaldehyde. The solution takes place slowly in the cold, but is accelerated by heating.

The Meteorological Office of London and the Deutsche Beobachtungsanstalt at Hamburg carried on jointly in February March, and April, 1904, and 9 months of observations in March and September, an elaborate investigation with regard to the use of wireless weather reports from vessels in weather forecasting. The cooperation of the principal British and German transatlantic steamship lines was secured, and each of their steamers sent reports twice daily while they were within a prescribed zone of the ocean. The net result of these experiments was that a majority of the reports arrived too late to be of any service to the forecasters. It appears unlikely that the meteorological institutes will feel encouraged to take any further steps in this direction until the delay in transmitting messages from ships to shore stations is much reduced. The Deutsche has announced that of the messages received promptly enough to be utilized by the forecasters during August and September, none of them was of any value. The results are based on reports from land stations, but it is admitted that this might not have been the case with a different disposition of the weather conditions over the ocean.

The Austrian Government has recently entrusted to the K. k. Reichsanstalt für Bodenkunde in Vienna, under the control of the Austrian Minister for Public Works, the radium is sold in the form of radium bromide. The price of radium bromide in grams the price for each milligramme of radium chloride, including the containing cell, being 4000 kronen. It is packed in a cylindrical cell of 21 millimeters diameter and 55 millimeters high, formed of nickel-plated brass. On the bottom of the cell a layer of lead is cast, in which is a square depression for the reception of the radium bromide chloride. The cell is closed by a nickel plate held in position by the screw on upper part of the casing. On the bottom of the casing is an official stamp (an eagle) and the serial number. Radium cells sealed with lead and stamped on the soldered part, are also supplied. The cells are packed in cotton and sheet lead in a small box, together with a certificate bearing the number of the cell and the weight and radium content of the preparation. The cells are packed in a small box, together with the numbers of the cells, and are despatched by post as registered parcels at the cost and risk of the purchaser.

Upward of twenty different systems of storm signals are at present used by the maritime countries of the world. A uniform international code is a desideratum, and the task of devising one was entrusted by the International Meteorological Committee in London to the International Commission for Storm Signals, and agreed to recommend to the committee the adoption of a code proposed by Prof. Moritz chief of the United States Weather Bureau. This code substitutes a few simple and distinctive symbols for the symbols now used at a majority of the European ports for the storm flags before used in the United States and some other countries. Combination of red and white lanterns are to be used at night to convey the same information as the day signals. The proposed code has not yet however been formally adopted by any government, pending the decision of the International Meteorological Committee. Some which meets in Berlin next September. Since the London meeting objections have been raised by the German authorities to the proposed night signals on the ground that they are not so distinctive as the day signals, and be confused with other harbor lights. The Deutsche Beobachtungsanstalt at Hamburg is now experimenting with several systems of night signals and will lay the results of its investigations before the committee.

## TIMING AN AUTOMOBILE RACE

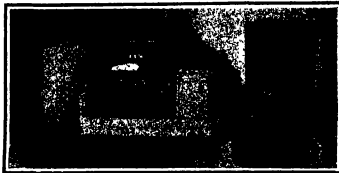
AN AUTOMATIC INSTRUMENT THAT TAKES THE PLACE OF A STOP-WATCH.

Even the casual reader has no doubt observed that automobile records are now expressed in hundredths of a second, whereas but a few months ago it was impossible to obtain any greater precision than fifths of a second, all of which was due to the use of the time interval split-second stop-watch, has been outgrown in automobile races. When one stops to think about it it is really absurd to try to time an automobile traveling anywhere from a mile to two miles and over per minute with an indicator that cranks at a snail's pace around a dial but an inch and a quarter in diameter. In the recent race at Ormond, for instance where the mile record was reduced to 27.33 seconds by Barney Oldfield he was traveling nearly 200 feet each second, which is equivalent to the length of an ordinary New York city block. When automobiles were first used for racing purposes, they were timed in hand with stop-watches, wherever the operator is depended upon to snap a stop-watch, inaccuracies are apt to creep in due to the fact that one person is quicker of perception than another, and even the start of the race, and as soon as this impression is received must start his watch, then at the close of the race the same operation must be undergone to stop the watch. The time record of this mental and physical operation varies in different persons, and is known as the personal element. Not only does it vary with different persons but with the same person at different times depending upon his mental and physical condition. For this reason, even in the timing of foot races it was long ago found necessary to have three timers and to take the time of the middle watch, for the instruments of the three timers varied as much as three-fifths of a second.

Early in the history of automobile racing an effort was made to eliminate the personal element by having stop-watches snapped automatically by the cars themselves making or breaking an electrical contact that, as we have just pointed out, even with the personal element eliminated, stop-watches are entirely too slow to record the time of so rapidly moving an object as a racing automobile. The experiment of using a chronograph was tried in several of the races last year, but as this did not prove very satisfactory, Mr. C. H. Warner of the Warner Instrument Company determined to make a special instrument particularly adapted for this purpose. This instrument was first used at Atlantic last December, and has just been employed for timing the Ormond and Daytona races. It works with the utmost precision, is entirely automatic, and makes a printed record of the race, reading to hundredths of a second. The novelty of such great refinement of timing will be appreciated when one considers that the "Lightning Boys" during its record mile run was traveling at the rate of 218 inches at every hundredth of a second.

Mr. Warner's instrument consists of four type wheels, one of which indicates hours the next minute the third seconds, and the last one-hundredths of a second. The wheels are operated after the manner of an odometer instrument. Over the wheels runs a strip of paper and above that a typewriter ribbon, and a record is made by a hammer actuated by an electro-magnet, which strikes the ribbon and paper against the type wheels. In the circuit of the magnet which operates the hammer is a relay switch controlled by an electro-magnet in a circuit that is normally closed. This closed circuit is connected with the starting and finish tapes, or with tapes at other points where it is desirable to record the time. The tape consists of a wire stretched across the course at a height of a few inches above the ground and this wire is connected, to a switch impulsively connected to be opened by the shock, rather than an increase of tension when the wire is struck by the wheels of an automobile. When the wire opens the instrument prints a record. The type wheels are frictionally mounted on a driving shaft, which is rotated by an electric motor. At the start of the race they are held stationary, and are not released until the starting wire is depressed, when they print zero and they begin their revolutions. The hundredths wheel makes a revolution every two seconds.

Obviously, the most important part of the instrument is the regulation of the electric motor, which drives the type wheels. It is impossible to construct a motor so perfect or a storage battery that will discharge so uniformly, that there will not be the slight



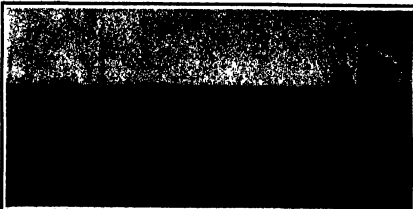
An instrument that times races to hundredths of a second.

est variation in the rotation of the driving shaft. However, the instrument is so arranged that at the end of every second its speed is automatically checked up with an accurate chronometer. At one end of the driving shaft is a doubled lever, and in the path



Switching in the instrument as a car is approaching the tape.

of this arm is a small catch connected with the armature of an electro-magnet. The chronometer acts through a relay circuit to energize this magnet every second, thus moving the catch out of the path of each arm of the lever. The motor is regulated



Barney Oldfield approaching the finish line at the end of his record mile run.

## TIMING AN AUTOMOBILE RACE.

to turn the shaft over so slightly faster than one turn in two seconds, so that each arm strikes the catch just an instant before it is withdrawn. Secured to the base of the instrument at one side is a "talltale" indicator, forming the armature of an electro-magnet. The circuit of the magnet is closed through the arm and catch contact, thus giving the "talltale" a slight thump every second. The operator

of the instrument watches this "talltale," with one hand on the governor of the electric motor, and the "talltale" indicator hangs too long at each moment of the arm and catch he slows up the motor a trifle, whereas if the "talltale" fails to register a bump he speeds up the motor slightly, so that the arm will strike the catch just before or at the moment that the catch is withdrawn by the chronometer. In this way a very accurate rate check is kept on the timing of the motor, which can be regulated to within 1/1,000 of a second of the speed of the chronometer.

In order to avoid a false start due to a person's walking against or tripping over the tape lines, the timing instrument is set out of circuit with the starting time until just before an automobile is about to touch them. An assistant gives a signal to the operator of the instrument at the proper time, and he throws in a switch just in time to catch the record of the automobile. At the same time the assistant calls out the number of the automobile, which the operator enters on the paper strip alongside of the registered time. When the car reaches the finish line, this is communicated to the operator's assistant by telephone. It will be observed that no personal element whatever enters into the recording of the time made by the machine, and that everything is automatic except the regulation of the speed of the motor and the entering of the automobile numbers opposite the seconds they have made.

One of our photographs shows Barney Oldfield in his "Lightning Bolt" just as he is approaching the finish line. The other photograph shows Mr. Warner in the timing stand about to take the record of the approaching car.

## To Remodel the House of Representatives.

Because the acoustics of the House of Representatives are so bad that it is almost impossible for the speaker to hear a member of the House, unless that member has lungs of leather, plans have been drawn and all preparations made for a transformation of the lower house of Congress.

For many years now there has been trouble in the House both in the way of acoustics and with ventilation. For such a large body, these two principal features have not been as they should be. The plans in contemplation will remedy these defects, and make the House one of the finest legislative chambers in the world.

One of the main ideas to be put into execution is the reducing in size of the chamber. In this way it is thought that with smaller quarters, doing away with some of the galleries, and by narrowing the chamber, the acoustics will be all that could be desired. The ventilation will also be arranged to better advantage.

The plans as contemplated also bring the House of Representatives in the same fashion as the British House of Commons. In this manner benches and small shelves will take the place of the desks and easy chairs now used by the members. The benches will resemble in appearance the chairs used in the Senate.

By taking away the desks and easy chairs, it is thought that those members not interested in the debates or speeches will absent themselves from the chamber.

The floor of the present chamber has an area of nearly 5,000 square feet. The floor plan of the proposed hall will only be about 6,000 square feet. The seating capacity of the new hall will be 430, although there are now less than 400 members of the House.

Some of the lobbies and extra rooms will be cut out, and the reduction in size of the hall will, of course, result in the reduction of the public galleries, whose seating capacity will be reduced about thirty.

Coming to the peculiar conditions of the hall, with regard to the acoustics and ventilation, many members will away their time by conversing with each other in loud tones or talking to the neighbors by slapping their desks or kicking the cushions. Amendments are being made now for a notation computer and one which cannot be kicked around.

Congress has since appropriated over half a million dollars for the transformation, and the members are waiting for the adjournment to begin operations.

# A FINE LONG-SPAN MASONRY ARCH BRIDGE

BY OUR ENGLISH CORRESPONDENT

There has been erected on the new Bellegarde-Chancy electric railway in France a masonry bridge which in span and height ranks as the largest of its type in the country, and which possesses many interesting features. The bridge is situated in the Département de l'Ain, and is in close proximity to the frontier of Switzerland in the canton of Geneva. This imposing structure was designed and erected under the supervision of Monsieur Piazet, engineer in chief of the Bridge Department to whose courtesy we are indebted for the accompanying illustrations and details, and Monsieur Dorron, surveyor in chief of the department.

The new railroad passes through the wildest and most picturesque spots of the Jura Mountains and in its location follows the course of the Valserine stream, a tributary to the Rhone. This rivulet is crossed twice first by means of the Bellegarde viaduct comprising seven spans each of 60 feet in the clear by 150 feet in height, and secondly by a handsome masonry bridge the Moulin des Pierres or Montanas which has a main span of 268 feet 9 1/4 inches.

At the latter crossing the river flows through a deep rock gorge, the precipitous banks of which are over 170 feet in height. The rock was found to be of such excellent bearing quality that the engineer in chief decided to use the cliffs as the abutments of a large single arch. The latter is springing from the sides has a radius of 164 feet 3/4 inch for the arc at the intrados and of 177 1/4 feet at the extrados. The thickness of the masonry at the key stone is 4 feet 11 inches and at the springing 8 feet 2 1/2 inches while the width is 17 feet 10 1/2 inches increased at the coping to 20 feet 8 inches between parapets which is sufficient to provide width for two foot pavements a railroad track of meter gauge and a roadway paralleling the railroad track.

The eleven small arches which surround the great span on either side have semicircular openings of 17 feet 4 1/2 inches clear. They are carried on piers having a thickness at the top of 3 feet 6 1/2 inches and the sides parallel with the axis of the stream have a batter of 1 in 10 from the point at which they rise from the main arch.

Owing to the depth of the ravine the erection of such a large single span bridge called for some extensive framework. As the keystone of the main span is approximately 217 feet above the level of the water it was necessary to erect wooden falsework from the stream to the level of the abutments to carry the centering and this temporary work comprises three substantial towers built of wood and strongly braced

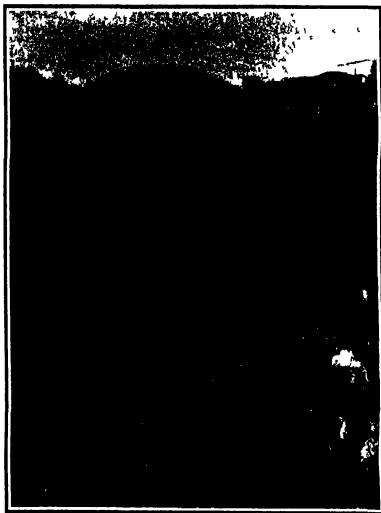
together. The towers were each some 111 feet in height and were erected on masonry piers 11 feet in height built on piles driven in the bed of the stream. In erecting the towers it was imperative that ample provision should be made for wind pressure as

shown the extent of any deformation from this cause the engineers caused the stone-work to be laid in right sections independent of one another which were finally connected together. An aerial railway was erected across the gorge by means of which the timber piers centering and arch were erected the whole of the material being conveyed to its site and set in position by this means.

The bridge was commenced in August 1908. By January 17th of the following year the whole of the timber falsework had been set up and the erection of the masonry was completed by August 1st last. When the masonry work was finished the timbering was dismantled. The removal of the centering was accomplished by emptying the boxes filled with sand on which the various parts of the falsework frame rested which dropped the whole of the timbering sufficiently to enable it to be handled. The falsework was demolished without any movement being noticed in the masonry by November 7th last. When completed the bridge will excel in span any similar work existing in France, while its height over the valley which is equal to that of the towers of Notre Dame in Paris is greater than that of any other single span masonry bridge elsewhere in the world. Its total cost will approach nearly \$72,000.

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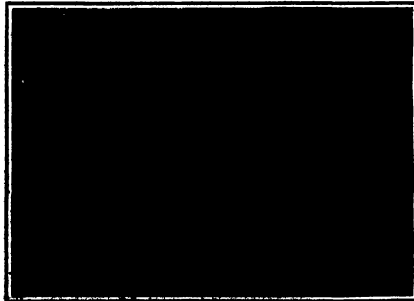
According to the Physical Railway Journal experiments with a method of increasing traction by magnetic wheels have been conducted for some time by Mr. O. Hime, of Lowell, Mass. The wheel contains four magnets, one on each side of which are four segments comprising part of the tread of the wheel and a ring of 1 per cent manganese steel is clamped between them and the wheel proper to and the magnetic air cut into the rail. The energizing of the magnets is so timed that each successive section of the wheel is attracted to the rail just in advance of making contact with it so that the drive wheels giving increased adhesion also exert a magnetism on the rail. The current is cut off from each given segment as soon as it is no longer in contact with the rail. Tests have been made on a truck equipped with two 1/2 horse power 70 volt stand railway motors and weighing 1500 pounds. With this traction due to weight alone the motors developed a drawbar pull of 700 pounds. With the wheels magnetized the tractive effort was increased to 1400 pounds or more than 100 per cent. The inventor does not claim to increase the traction by such a liberal percentage on an ordinary axle but states that a car equipped with this device should be able to mount grades that are otherwise impossible without a rack



Timber falsework ready for the laying of the masonry.

the storms which drive through this ravine are often of extreme severity. This was accomplished by tying the towers to each other and to the embankment rock and the pier bases by steel cables so arranged as to provide a system of bracing which served to hold the whole of the falsework perfectly rigid. The intricate character of the timber centering is plainly visible in the accompanying illustrations, and it may be mentioned that in this part of the work 21,184 cubic feet of wood and 10 tons of iron and steel were used.

In placing the masonry in position care had to be observed to guard against any sinking of the timbering under the superimposed weight and in order to



The masonry of the main arch was held in eight independent centers.



The arch has a clear span of 268 feet 9 1/4 inches; it stands 217 feet clear of the river.

Design by THE MONTANAS MASONRY ARCH BRIDGE.

## OUR MARVELOUS AUTOMOBILE INDUSTRY

If ever an industry has grown by leaps and bounds, surely it is that of making motor cars. Even the bicycle in its palmy days did not produce machinery whose retail value for ten years could industry had the truly enormous sum of money represented by the automobile products made in the United States between 1895 and 1910. Merely figures tell but little.

We have presented on the front page of this issue a graphic illustration, in which the wonderful strides made in the manufacture of motor cars are tellingly depicted. These strides are all the more remarkable when it is considered that our industry had to weather the severe financial depression of 1908, a period which was one of the most critical in the recent financial history of this country.

Considered merely from the standpoint of money, the automobile industry in this country presents a most wonderful spectacle. The total estimated value of automobiles to be manufactured in 1910 is \$257,000,000. When the industry was born in this country, which was in 1895, the estimated value of the machines turned out was only \$157,000. In the brief space of twelve years, therefore, we have created an industry whose annual product is valued at millions. The intermediate stages between 1895 and 1910 show a growth which is stupendous. The stage from 1895 to 1899 marked an increase in the value of the automobile from \$100,000 to \$1,250,000. Still more remarkable is the development from 1899 to 1904, for the value of the automobile product in this period increased nearly sixteen fold. In that time, the actual value of an automobile produced in 1903 being \$16,000,000. Remarkable also that increase undoubtedly was it was almost equaled by the interval from 1904 to 1907, when \$105,000,000 worth of automobile machinery was manufactured. From the year 1907 to 1910 a 100 per cent increase is to be expected. In other words, in these three years the increase in the value of the automobile industry will be greater than the total value of the industry in the year 1907.

An industry which has grown with such startling rapidity and which is valued at so precisely a sum, naturally gives employment to an army of mechanics, all of them skilled men handsomely paid. Thus we find that the mere wages paid for mechanics in 1910 will amount to about \$100,000,000. The number of men who drive the many cars which were in use in 1910 will earn \$25,000,000 at the very least in 1910.

The number of automobiles produced is nothing short of staggering. If the number of cars which were made in 1907, they would reach from New York to Pittsburg, a distance of 437.7 miles. This output of 300,000 in three times the space of time that of 1907, considered from this linear standpoint of the year 1907, had they been placed end to end, would have extended from New York to Haverburg, a distance of 191.05 miles. Compared with this, the 18,353 automobiles manufactured in 1903 seem exceedingly small, although as a matter of fact the machines for that year, had they been placed end to end, would have extended from New York to New Brunswick, N. J., a distance of 29.25 miles. Even this, small as it seems in comparison with the gigantic production of 1910, is huge when we consider that between 1895 and 1910 the automobile produced in this country would have extended only from New York to Jersey City, a distance of 1.4 miles.

And all the automobiles made in 1910 been converted into a single huge machine, it would be equal to our front-page illustration shows, a car which would be longer than the steamship "El. Paul," measuring 524 feet from stem to stern. Even the output of 1899 had it been thus converted into a single machine, would have been longer than the "El. Paul." The machines of 1903 similarly considered would have been three-quarters as long. The output of 1895-1899 is, of course, vanishingly small in comparison with this gigantic trans-Atlantic steamer.

Naturally an industry of such Titanic proportions must be capitalized at millions. On the whole, it is safe to say that the actual capitalization of the automobile manufacturers is about \$250,000,000. The output for 1910 alone will surely exceed 200,000 cars. Even for 1909 there are over 150,000 automobiles in use throughout the country. The total value of the automobile industry is 125,000 in motor-car factories, with employees in parts factories reaching not less than 40,000, a total of 165,000.

Hard to hand with this increase in money value, we find improvements in manufacturing processes. Five years ago, when a man would have paid from \$2,000 to \$2,500 for a touring car, or \$1,500 to \$1,800 for a runabout, he would have to get more in the way of durability, or if he did, in the abundance of unanticipated amenities, he was almost sure to be disappointed before he had used the car many days. When we recurred to the output of those days in these columns, we usually had to recite a series of troubles of various sorts, chiefly with tires, carburetors, ignition devices, as well as breakdowns and imperfect functioning of valve mechanisms, shafts, gears, chains,

steering knuckles, driving axles, and other vital parts. Contrasting this condition with the results of the Golden Tour of 1909, we find that thirty cars took part in that run and finished an arduous trip of 15,000 miles in 15 days, at an average speed of twenty miles an hour during the daylight running periods, without making a single involuntary stop. That tells the tale of the wonderful technical improvements which have been effected in the brief space of a few years. It is rarely indeed that repairs are made during runs nowadays. Occasionally a brake, a carburetor, an ignition system, or a tire may be adjusted, or a tire may blow out, but the cars operate smoothly and trustworthily.

The introduction of special grades of steel, aluminum, vanadium, and babbit, all of them endowed with definite mechanical properties peculiarly suited to the requirements of automobile manufacture, have wonderfully improved the quality of the motor car. Nickel steel and chrome-nickel steel are now used in crank shafts, transmission shafts, driving axles, driving and differential steering gears, steering knuckles, and similar parts, manganese-bronze, phosphor-bronze, and various aluminum alloys find their places in crankcases, connecting rods, steering gears, and parts demanding great stiffness combined with light weight.

The automobile industry is very largely responsible for the discovery of the physical properties of chromium-nickel and manganese-chromium alloys, and the modes of heat treatment and for the introduction of special tool steels required to work them, and has thus indirectly benefited the metallurgical industry of this country. As a result of the employment of these new steels in the sliding gear sets, by way of illustration, it is now possible to transmit the 40 of 80 horsepower of the modern touring car with smaller and lighter gear sets than were used in cars of 15, 20 and 30 horsepower five years ago, and that with much greater certainty against breakage and the practical elimination of the unmaking of the ends of the teeth by heating and of wear due to contact under load. This improvement in quality, plus infinitely more grace in general lines and in comfort to the passengers, is offered to the buyer almost at no advance in cost over the ungainly, uncomfortable, and poorly-equipped cars of six and seven years ago. It is safe to say that a great proportion of the automobiles manufactured in 1910 will be low priced cars. The car that could be bought for a few years ago for \$1,000 would now require great attention. Automobileing at that time was unquestionably a diversion for the rich. Nowadays a man of moderate means can purchase and use a car at an expense that is well within the bounds of reason.

In the early days of the automobile industry, the manufacturer was under the necessity of making all his parts, today the factories actually making even 75 per cent of the parts that they use are in small proportion to the number of producers. It is to these changes that the convenience of the modern automobile is largely due. There was a time when an assembled car was undoubtedly open to suspicion, for however dextrous a maker of its parts might be to do good work, he had neither the knowledge nor the facilities that would make it possible. These same companies now possess enormous plants. Their designers and equipment are the best obtainable and their products embody the latest and best in practice, workmanship, and material. Assemblers now have at their command parts of a high degree of excellence, and can buy them at prices far below those charged for the weak and inferior parts of a few years past.

When a manufacturer turns out twenty thousand cars a year, it is not only justifiable but necessary for him to invest very considerable sums in special machinery and tools for the production of these cars. It is not possible for a small producer to be indelible. One manufacturer has spent \$100,000 for dies to produce a rear axle housing, on a production of one thousand cars, the charge against each for tooling would be \$10. With an output of twenty thousand cars, however, the charge of \$2 against each is little enough for the purchaser to pay for so excellent a feature.

A recent development that illustrates the endeavor to reduce manufacturing costs is the establishment by some of the leading producers of assembling shops at the large centers. To these are shipped parts in sufficient quantities to be held in stock for ready sale locally, and as there is no equipment of machines, tools, the expense is slight. The freight rate on unassembled parts is much lower than on complete cars, and the cars are effected in time and cost as well as in money makes the system a satisfactory one.

Just as the automobile industry is, huge as is the present-day output, it must not be supposed that the present-day manufacturer of medium-priced cars is any more than a legitimate profit. One of the largest producers stated recently that his profit on a \$1,000 car is about \$100, such a statement is not surprising when we consider his enormous investment in material and parts, his really vast equipment of machine tools, and his labor expense.

It has been said that any average engineer our de-

sign a car to sell at \$4,000, but that the greatest profit is necessary when the selling price is to be less than \$1,000. Perhaps that may account for some of the exceedingly clever designs in the lower end cars of 1910.

The scene of the industry has shifted in the years from 1895 to 1910. Much of the early experimenting in motor cars and early manufacturing was done in Buffalo, Hartford, New York, N. J., Bridgeport and Hartford, Conn., Philadelphia, Pa., and other Eastern States. At present Michigan leads all the States in motor-car manufacturing, for that State last year made 113,000 of the total production of cars in 1909. Four other States adjoining it will produce 75,075 machines at least. The Middle West may therefore be said to be the real home of the automobile industry at the present time. It controls not only the assembling industry, but the making of tires, parts, and accessories as well, a condition which is primarily due to the industrial enterprise of the smaller communities of the Middle West, who have given land and in every way furthered the making of automobiles. It must also be considered that the makers of automatic machinery are very largely situated in the West, for which reason the better class of skilled labor is there to be found. Lastly, the shifting of the industry from the East to the Middle West has been caused in part at least by the fact that the raw material is there put into the hands of the second processes, as in the case of rubber, steel, leather, wood, brass, and the like.

That the Middle West is undoubtedly benefited by the influx of automobile manufacturers can be shown by the wonderful increase in the population of even the smaller towns. The influx of 2,000 to 5,000 families has doubled and tripled the populations of such cities as Flint, Mich., and New Castle, Ind., and greatly increased the value of real estate. Persons who were practically unheard of before the automobile entered into our daily life are now thriving centers of industry. Communities with a population of only five or six thousand increase their names by thousands through the magazine advertising pages to millions and millions of readers, simply because they are the sites of large automobile plants.

## Cost of Various Methods of Illumination.

The Frankforter Zeitung publishes the following remarkably complete table of the cost of various methods of illumination.

	Cost of 100 normal candle hours.
Washington light	Cents 2.28
Flaming electric arc	0.581
Mercury vapor lamp	0.581
Incandescent gas light	0.581
Incandescent petroleum light	0.714
Direct current electric arc	0.942
Kerosene burner	1.668
Oleum lamp	1.785
Titanium lamp	2.904
Incandescent alcohol lamp	3.104
Alternating current electric arc	1.904
Nervet lamp	2.023
Small arc lamps	3.143
Acetylene	2.658
Carbon diaphragm	3.808
Argand gas burner	3.808
Fluohal gas burner	3.650
Steam candle	32.100

The Washington lamp is an incandescent lamp with burns petroleum under pressure.

In compiling this table the following average prices for fuels and electrical energy were employed:

Kerosene	2.38 cents per pound
Alcohol	4.23 cents per pound
Bleached candle	10.25 cents per pound
Gas	10.74 cents per thousand cubic feet
Acetylene	8.07 cents per thousand cubic feet
Methyl ether	11.90 cents per kilowatt hour.

According to plans formulated by Rear-Admiral C. D. Smith, chief of the Bureau of Naval Construction of the United States Navy, and submitted by him to Congress, wireless apparatus of the latest type is to be supplied to all the new vessels of the navy, including destroyers, torpedo boats, and submarines. It is believed that has proved very valuable in establishing wireless chains across long stretches of ocean without the necessity of disrupting the fighting fleet. Another plan is to establish a wireless communication station in Beaufort, Alaska, to provide wireless communication to Beaufort, connecting with the Cape Nome station, permitting vessels from Nome to lower California to keep in touch with the coast. After the contemplated high-powered stations in Beaufort and Cape Nome are in operation it is believed similar stations will be found necessary in the following places: The west coast of the United States, the Pacific Coast, Hawaii, and the Philippines. "This," says the admiral, "will be within only a few miles practically all waters where naval operations of interest to the United States might be expected. Such ships, with their wireless

## Correspondence.

## PITZER'S MONOPLANE.

To the Editor of the Scientific American.  
I have just read with much interest an article in your issue of February 12th under the caption "A Novel American Aeroplane."

The monoplane is always appealed to me as being more consistent with the laws of nature, and therefore more susceptible of continued improvement and eventual perfection, than the biplane. The double or triple plane strikes me as being contrary to the examples set us by Nature, the only plane being the superior of which *Daucus Nature* is rarely, if ever, guilty. It would be an incongruity for a bird to be supplied with more than one pair of wings, unless the duplex or triplicate wings were accompanied by a Ramessean or triplicate body. As long as there is but one body and one source of motive and controlling power, a single pair of supporting planes would appear to be all that is necessary if the planes are sufficiently extended to support the body at the speed normal to the bird. Additional planes do not sufficiently compensate for their increased buoyancy for the increased weight, unbalance, and instability. I therefore place my faith in the monoplane as likely to afford an additional illustration of the truth of the Darwinian theory of "the survival of the fittest."

Mr. Pitzer's design, according to my ideas, comes nearer to the ideal heavier-than-air flying machine than anything that has heretofore been brought to my attention. I will be greatly mistaken, and disappointed as well, if we do not see the success of his design as long as successfully rivaling even the best of the biplane.

But even Mr. Pitzer's novel design is susceptible of improvement. I cannot help wondering why neither he, nor any other aviator, has not been able to observe, has adopted what I consider to be a very essential element of stability invariably to be found in the make-up of the denizens of the air. I mean the inevitable disposition of the aircraft of the body to the supporting plane. Mr. Pitzer seems to have entirely ignored this principle, like all other aviators, by placing his engine and driver's seat above or on a level with the supporting plane.

Nature, on the contrary, suspends nearly the entire weight of the bird below the level of the wings or plane, evidently for the express purpose of securing stability. During flight, or even when the bird is on the extended wings of the buzzard (to adopt a familiar example) are held in a plane slightly above the point of their juncture with the body, while at the same time the head is lowered and the wings are bent and tend to bring it down to or beneath the plane of the wings. While the bird is sailing in a calm atmosphere, the legs and feet are drawn up toward the body, but at a sudden gust of wind strikes under the wing and tend to displace the center of gravity, the legs are at once extended in order to lower the center of gravity, and equilibrium is at once restored. This seems to me to be a wise provision of Nature worthy of imitation as far as is practicable by the aviator.

With the engine, and nacelle and water tanks, as well as the seat of the aviator, rigidly suspended as far as conveniently possible below the plane, the weight acts like a pendulum, the plumb-bob of the mass, or the ballast of a ship, its constant tendency being to restore the equilibrium of the planes the moment the disturbing force is removed. And in making a change of direction, if the radius of the curve is abrupt, the tendency of the outer plane to rise on account of its increased speed as compared to the retarded speed of the inner plane will be necessarily counteracted. With the weights so disposed, the extended planes will act like a parachute, and in case of the sudden breakdown of the engine or propeller will, in conjunction with the central forward slide of the machine, enable the aviator to alight in an open space "right side up," without damage to either himself or his aeroplane.

Were Mr. Pitzer to raise his plane to the tops of the vertical poles, and lower the engine, tanks, and seat to a level with the axis of the carriage, he would find that much less skill would be required to preserve the equilibrium of the machine. Possibly the propeller shaft should remain on a level with the plane, but if lowered just far enough to enable the blades to clear the ground, I apprehend he would be able to make a quicker start. The tendency to raise the plane upward would assist it in leaving the ground, and, once aloft, that tendency, if persisted in, could readily be counteracted by the proper use of the forward horizontal rudder, without perceptibly impeding the speed of the flyer.

I would suggest another scheme for the rodders. Let them be connected together, so they would move in unison. When the horizontal rod is elevated or depressed in order to rise or descend, it would make no material difference if the perpendicular rodder did also rise and fall in a perpendicular plane. It would be preferable to change in the manner of the manner.

If the perpendicular rodder should be turned to the

right or left in order to alter the course, it would have no influence on the elevation of the machine.

I possess but a superficial knowledge of aviation, and I have no means for investigation or experiment, but I have been intensely interested in the science ever since the Wright experiments were first made public. The above thoughts came to me as I read and pondered the description of Mr. Pitzer's novel device. I make bold to offer them to you for publication if you deem them worthy of being embalmed in print.

Norfolk, Va.

C. R. McClellan.

## THAT NUMBER FIFTEEN.

To the Editor of the Scientific American.

For your correspondent in the issue of January 22nd will study the following figure, he will plainly see that it is not impossible to get 20 sets of 3 out of 1-15, so that no two numbers will be in the same set more than once.

1-2-3	3-4-10	3-6-11	4-5-12	6-9-13
1-4-6	5-6-11	5-7-12	4-13-14	6-10-14
1-6-8	6-8-12	8-9-13	5-7-9	7-9-13
1-7-10	7-12-13	8-9-14	6-9-10	7-11-14
1-13-14	2-8-14	7-15-16	10-11-12	11-13-14
9-11-12	2-8-14	10-11-12	6-12-13	8-10-13
12-13-14	2-8-14	10-11-12	6-12-13	8-10-13
1-2-3	4-5-6	6-7-8	4-10-14	6-9-13
4-5-6	6-7-8	7-8-11	4-11-15	6-9-13
6-7-8	7-8-11	8-9-12	6-12-13	6-11-14
8-9-12	9-13-14	10-11-12	7-8-15	7-9-14
10-11-12	12-13-14	13-14-15	6-10-12	7-9-14
12-13-14	13-15-16	4-8-13	5-11-17	7-10-13
14-15-16	3-4-7	4-8-13	5-11-17	7-10-13

If he will carefully peruse the 30 sets of numbers presented by him in the same issue, he will discover that the numbers 4 and 8 are twice paired, leaving only 28 sets without duplicates.

Milwaukee, Wis.

LEWIS SHUMMAN.

## REBUILDING THE "IDARO" AND "MISSELIPIE."

To the Editor of the Scientific American.

As one of your readers, I have been following with interest the proposals put forward by various gentlemen regarding the reconstructing and rearming of the different types of pre-dreadnaught battleships in our navy.

In the March 4th number of your paper you published a letter from Mr. W. B. Shaw concerning the proposed rebuilding of the battleships "Idaro" and "Mississippi" class. One of the objections put forward was the impossibility of mounting a 10-in. gun in a turret built for two 8-in. Why not avoid this difficulty by leaving the eight 8-in. guns already mounted where they are and then to increase as much as possible the main battery to 12 in. This would make these ships even more similar to the "Louisiana" class.

I do not believe that the cutting in two of a battleship would entail very great difficulties as a few years ago a White Star liner was in two and a new bow built on the original having been destroyed by an accident. A torpedo-boat destroyer of the British navy also was rebuilt in this manner.

But if it was deemed too expensive to build this section as proposed, would it not be feasible to carry a few 7-inch guns and re-arm the ships with turbines of greater power thus attaining the extra knot and a half necessary to bring them into the "Louisiana" speed standard without the cost, time, and labor of totally rebuilding them?

LEONARD GROVER.

New York, March 21, 1910.

The "Idaro" and "Mississippi" are so much shorter than the "Connecticut" that there would be no room for the mounting of additional 7-inch guns. It would be useless to install turbines in these ships without increasing their length and the cost of both changes would not be warranted by the advantage of additional 7-inch guns and the greater speed secured thereby. The deficiencies in these ships are due to their being in Congress in limiting the displacement to 15,000 tons—[S.]

## Death of Alexander Agassiz.

Prof. Alexander Agassiz died on the steamer "Adriatic" on March 18th, while on his way to New York. Hardly less famous as a scientist than his father, he was noted not only as a biologist but as a mining engineer, financier, teacher and man of the world. In his life he combined the activities of President of the Calumet and Hecla Mining Company and director of the Museum of Comparative Zoology at Harvard, founded by his father. Prof. Agassiz was born in Neuchâtel in 1845 and did not come to this country until he was fifteen. His early education was received in Europe, although he was graduated from Harvard with the class of 1865. He started out in 1866 as a civil engineer, and did much of his work during the summer months on the Atlantic Geodetic Coast Survey. His work in that field naturally drew his attention to

the natural sciences. He began to collect fishes for his father, and thus was induced to follow in his father's footsteps. After that his activities were almost equally divided between zoology and mining.

A study of the copper mines of Peru and Chili led him to a survey of Lake Titicaca, and also to collect Peruvian relics, which are now lodged in the Peabody Museum at Harvard. Five years after he was born in 1876 he spent in deep-sea dredging. His biological survey of the waters of the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea is still regarded as classic.

His capabilities in the sciences led his father to his practical secured the means to gratify his father's ambition, the erection of the great Harvard Museum of Comparative Zoology.

He made by his prelate and ability in argument the development of the Lake Superior copper territory on Keweenaw Point (and now later traced to the mainland) a certainty.

## Death of Hermann Mookelack.

Obsternant 2. D. Hermann Mookelack died recently with him there has passed away one of the most ardent advocates of aero-navigation. Thanks to his efforts the Deutsche Verdn fuer Luftschiffahrt included in its programme meteorological measurements. As a young lieutenant, Mookelack became a member of the Deutsche Verein zur Forderung der Luftschiffahrt. As a member of the Verein zur Forderung der Oberflachenverdn fuer Luftschiffahrt, and published its official organ, *Illustrirte Aeronautische Mitteilungen*, now the official organ of all the German aeronautic societies. He was a member of the International Commission for Scientific Aeronautics and a charter member of the International Commission of Aeronautic Maps. It was only recently that he founded an *aero Luftschiffahrtverein* fuer Berlin und Brandenburg.

## Death of Charles Clark.

Charles Clark, who died in Oakland, Cal., on March 24th, had been in California for more than half a century to almost every tourist who has visited the Yosemite Valley. While on a hunting trip in 1857, he discovered the great redwood grove at Mariposa. Soon after this "Clark" devoted his spare time to exploring the upper heights of the Sierra Nevada. Mountain and made known to the world much of the beauties and wonders of the big tree grove and of Yosemite.

## The Current Supplement.

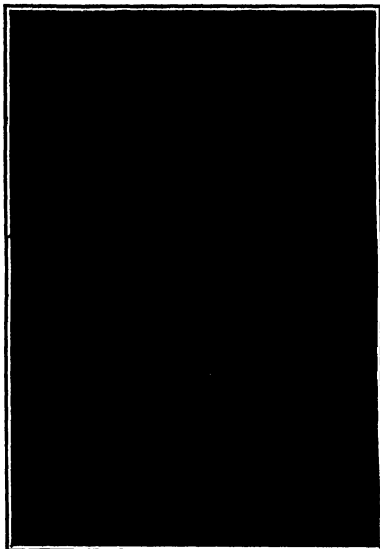
In the current SUPPLEMENT, No. 1768, Mr. P. M. N. Dennis reviews the recent work which has been done in the electrical reduction of iron and steel. There is much contained in this regard to dynamo and the colors which they impart to the textile fabric, and this confusion Prof. Otto N. Goetz seeks to remove. Some very interesting novelties in toys are described in Illustrated List, John C. Galt exhaustively discusses the old holds of the Gulf of Mexico. In an article on the South Pole will be found mentioned the various schemes which have recently been put forth to reach the South Pole. Prof. George E. Hale's admirable consideration of solar vortices and magnetic fields, in which he reviews his recent study of the sun is concluded. Halley's comet is now visible to the naked eye just before dawn in the east. The article on the chain grate iron ore, the biggest of its kind which has ever been held in Europe.

According to the Engineering Record improved boiler performance has been attained at the Anderson station of the Indiana Union Traction Company by preventing the leakage of air from the joints around the end of the chain grate into the stove. This is accomplished by first fitting a 4-inch extra-heavy pipe across the furnace 8 inches from the rear of the grate, with its upper surface 1 1/2 inches above the top of the grate. To this a spool of about 10 inches between the center of the pipe and the rear fire-box wall, which is covered with a course of brick. This spool prevents the escape of air, while the pipe holds the unconsumed coal until it has been burned into ash, which the grate can carry back under the pipe in the desired manner. Inside the 4-inch pipe is one of 1-inch diameter running from one end nearly to the other. This is admitted through the small pipe and flows back through the large one, the rate of flow being adjusted so that its final temperature is just under the boiling point of water. It is then discharged into a tank, the condition to be inspected, into a boiler delivering it to the hot well.





and secondary signals. The receiver of the instructions read the azimuth bearing at the base end. These angles are then plotted on a plotting board, and the position of the large gun is determined to the center of the gun's reference. At the expiration of 10 seconds, the target is again plotted. The course of the ship is then accurately determined, and by means of a mechanical calculator the range is determined. The target has changed in azimuth, due to its speed, is determined. The last range read is now set on a device called a range corrector, which automatically graphic adding and subtracting machines. The corrections above referred to are made by the range corrector. Here are applied the corrections for the gun arm of the plotting machine. The range is then sent to the gun by telephone or teleauto graph. This range is called the corrected predicted range to the target. The range corrector is accurate to 20 seconds ahead. It is now plugged in on the time range relation board which is in full view of the range officer. The range officer watches the range board and the target, and keeps the range dial continually set at the corrected range (as observed on the time range relation board) when the target is in sight. The deflection correction is obtained by the use of a device called the deflection board. This is in the case of the target, and the deflection board of the plotting machine which determines the number of degrees and minutes of deflection. The range officer sets the deflection board on the slight due to wind drift. The deflection board of the target is determined by ballistic calculations, and the curve is constructed on a metal scale. The range officer watches the wind and determines the deflection of the wind by means of a anemometer and is received at the plotting machine. The deflection board called the anemometer shown in



# OUR CIVIL DAY

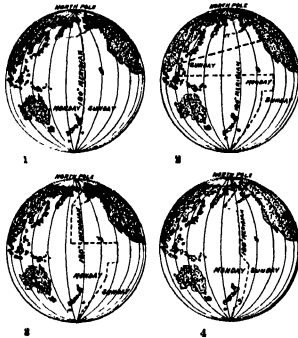
## ITS ARRIVAL ON AND PROGRESS AROUND THE EARTH

BY DANIEL ARTHUR

A few generations before our era the "whole known world" was only some 25 million square miles in extent instead of nearly 200 millions as we now know. That great observer and geographer, Strabo, made a noble attempt about 25 B. C. to draw a map of the "World." It even used lines which looked very like parallels of latitude and of longitude. These lines were largely based on the reported records of travelers, and hence were not very accurate. There were no such refinements on his maps as intentional date lines or time zones. His general outline of the "whole world" was about 80 deg. wide east and west by 60 deg. long north and south. It was all above our equator, and extended only about a quarter of the way around the earth. The month of the changes was farthest east and what is now Ireland was farthest west. The Caspian Sea was thought to be an arm of the Northern Ocean, while the lower end of the Red Sea was about the southern limit. Knowledge of the rest of the world grew very slowly then, as was shown by the fact that the great Straits drew a map of the "World" two hundred years later (about 25 B. C.) and made no material extension of its lines. It pushed Great Britain and Ireland farther west and made some radical changes on the northern edge of the Mediterranean, but other than these two maps of two hundred years apart are practically the same. There is very little doubt, however, that Strabo thought the world to be round, before he died. Hence the necessity for a date line was felt even at this early date.

While the spherical earth idea was passing through its hundreds of years of resistance, some radical observers started it spinning on its axis as to speak. They were bold men, but they proved their case. This brought the date line as a necessity closer to us. It would almost seem that with a "flat disk world" converted into a stationary globe, and later into a rotating globe the date line idea should have suggested itself at once. Not so, however, for it appears that when Magellan crossed the Atlantic from the east he voyaged around South America, crossed the Pacific, discovered the Philippine Islands, and went home around the lower end of Africa, thus completing a trip around the world. This trip was made less than four hundred years ago, yet when the explorer arrived at their home country they were astonished to find that they carried a date on board their ships which was a day earlier than the home date. It was soon found that no mistakes were made on the log books as to the time records and that the home calendar was certainly correct. The explanation of this seems

to a set of questions sent by the writer. The map, together with the questions and the answers, will be found on a recent Pacific chart issued by the Navy Department. To describe the line, commencing at the northern end, it will be seen that the first deflection of practice is to the east, to give the tip of Siberia the same date as the rest of the Russian empire



1 Theoretical date line. 2 Date line when Alaska took date of Russia and Philippines took it of Spain. 3 Date line after purchase of Alaska and Philippines took latest date. 4 Present international date line.

### Fig. 1—The evolution of the international date line

Then after the line passes through Bering Strait it bears to the west, crossing the true line of 180 deg. and far enough beyond it to take in all of the Aleutian Islands to the American date, after which it turns back to 180 deg., where it stays until it crosses the equator a few degrees, at which point it again deflects eastward to give the Tonga Islands the date of Australia. The line then returns to the 180th meridian and continues on that line to the south pole.

The foregoing is the "international date line" of

1845, to bring these islands into accord with the date of the countries east of the Cape of Good Hope. When Alaska was acquired by the United States the date line was transferred west of that territory or into Bering Strait. These two radical changes made the line of practice look more like the third diagram in Fig. 1. Refer to Fig. 3, which is intended to show the entrance of time on our globe.

The picture illustrates a mechanical delivery of our civil day, month, year, or century by means of an equatorial tape. Let us assume that the earth is stationary and that this tape enters and departs under the date-line rollers as shown. If the tape had a speed of about 1,040 miles per hour and was properly marked in hours, days, months, etc., it would show just how our civil day enters the earth and progresses around it with a constant motion. The illustration shows the front end of the twentieth century as having completed 18 hours of its first day on earth, leaving only 6 hours of the nineteenth century to glide toward the line and off, to no one knows where. The front end of January 2nd will have reached the earth's time door to enter it just as December 31st steps out, as it were. Then we have the twentieth century all over the earth with January 1st reducing its equatorial width at the rate of some 17 miles per minute and January 2nd growing broader at the same velocity. This of course is assuming that time is entering normally and not by the arbitrary intermittent steps that we will call the twenty-four way stations of our civil day. This latter system is in successful operation in the United States and two or three other leading nations, China being one of the more recent converts to the hourly zone system.

Fig. 3 shows the earth with the hourly time belts or zones outlined from pole to pole. The line drawings are 15 deg. apart and represent the boundary lines of these zones and give their centers. Fig. 4 is the same as before as viewed from the north star in both illustrations the United States are outlined in approximately the correct location, so as to show the theoretical boundary lines of the hourly zones as applied to that country. Now in these two illustrations let us assume that the system has been adopted in all parts of the world. Commencing with the prime meridian at Greenwich as the center of a zone bounded by lines 7½ deg. east and 7½ deg. west, the completion of such a set of lines would give us just what is drawn and what our United States are actually using in theory. To illustrate mechanically the delivery of time on this plan, our equatorial tape is intermittent

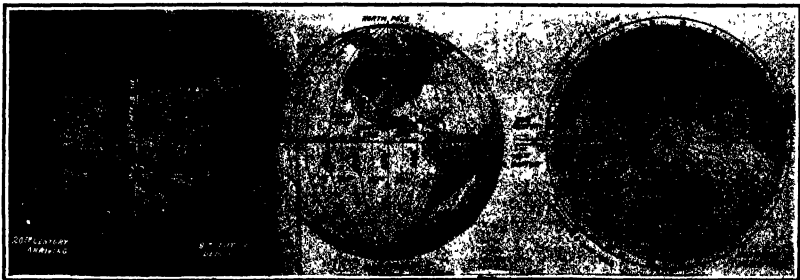


Fig. 2.

Fig. 3.

Fig. 4.

How the twentieth century was ushered in—a mechanical parallel.

### OUR CIVIL DAY—ITS ARRIVAL ON AND PROGRESS AROUND THE EARTH.

ing impossibility was soon forthcoming, and our date line was born in fact.

As no one wanted the line near his home or country, it was put in the most out-of-the-way place possible, where it still stays. The 180th degree meridian is in theory where each new civil day is born, but in practice it has never been officially adopted. In Fig. 1 diagram 4, show its location with the deflections of 180 deg. as they now exist on the official map at Washington. This map was made by the Hydrographic Office of the United States to illustrate its replies

practice at the present time, but in former generations the deflections were considerably greater, as for example the one shown in the second diagram of Fig. 1. In this date line Alaska was taken into the day of Russia, to which empire it formerly belonged. The line then took a westerly sweep of thousands of miles to take the Philippine Islands under the date as written in Spain. This latter wide deflection was afterward turned back or corrected by the action of the Governor General of the Philippines when he decreed that December 31st, 1844, be reckoned as January 1st,

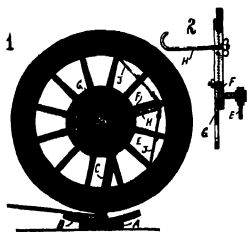
in its action, that is to say, it jumps 1,040 miles and then stands still for an hour, which means that on the twenty-fourth jump on any day of given name, that (Continued on page 307)

\*When writing this article it has come to my notice that Chief of Staff of the United States Army has given me some advice as to the date line. He has advised me to quote the International Journal, the Office has been unable to find the same 17 miles per minute. This was accomplished by being a gun at 180° A. M. on a given day and nothing is true. This means that New York city or Washington, D. C., may come nearer to Chief of Staff's office in time than any of his other offices.



ROYAL AUTOMOBILE PUMP

Pictured in the accompanying engraving is an interesting form of pump, that may be used for inflating an automobile tire. The device is arranged to be operated by the automobile itself. It consists of a base *A*, on which is mounted a jack used to raise an automobile axle so that the wheel will clear the ground. The base *A* carries a shoe *B*, which is designed to assist in positioning the automobile wheel with respect to the pumping device before the jack is operated to raise it. The pump is indicated at *C*, and is mounted to rock on a bolt *D*. The pump piston *E* is connected to the automobile wheel by a device shown clearly in the cross-sectional view (Fig.

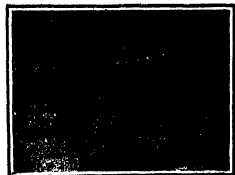


ROYAL AUTOMOBILE PUMP

3) A slotted plate *F* is provided with teeth adapted to engage similar teeth on a slotted plate *G*. The plate *G* is provided with a crank pin, to which the piston rod *E* is connected. The plate *G* is provided with an apertured extension, adapted to fit over the axle of the automobile wheel. The plate *F* is attached to one of the spokes of the wheel by means of a hook *H*. While a pair of hinged braces *I* are used to connect it with two more spokes of the wheel. In this way a rigid connection with the wheel is secured by lowering the thumb nut on the hook *H*. If the plate *F* may be moved up or down on plate *G* so as to adjust the parts to wheels of different sizes. The distance from the crank pin to the center of the wheel, however, is fixed. In use the automobile engine is operated to rotate the wheel, and this action carries the piston up and down in a cylinder, the latter rocking back and forth to accommodate itself to the lateral throw of the crank pin. A flexible tube connects the pump with the tire that is to be inflated. By this arrangement a tire may be inflated very rapidly, and the inflation carried to a further degree than is possible by the manual operation. By using a speed attachment of any of the well-known types, the bursting of tires due to excessive pressure may be avoided. This inventor of this automobile pump is Dr. Richard A. Goeth of San Antonio, Texas.

COLLECTION BOX FOR MAIL CHUTES.

Collection boxes at the terminal of mail chutes are frequently filled to such an extent before the mail is removed that when the collection is made the mail tumbles out of the box on opening the box door and falls to the floor in spite of every precaution taken by the collector. To better this bothersome condition a box has recently been devised which is provided with a platform having foldable side walls that permit the platform to swing downward when the door of the box is opened and serve to prevent the mail matter from falling from the box. The construction of this



COLLECTION BOX FOR MAIL CHUTES.

box is clearly shown in the accompanying engraving. Fig. 1 shows the box door open with the platform *A* swung down horizontally. The platform is provided with two side wall plates *B* rigidly secured thereto and a series of sector shaped plates *C*. Near the forward edge of each of the plates *B* and *C* is a groove *D* adapted to receive a pin mounted on the adjacent plate, while at the opposite ends the plates of each side wall are mounted on a common hinge pin. This permits the side walls to close up somewhat after the manner of a fan to the position indicated in Fig. 2. The innermost sector *C* is provided with a lug *E*, which engages a lip formed at the top of the box and flange the outward swing of the platform *A*. To prevent the letters from dropping between the sector plates the top of the box is provided with two guards *F* which extend below the upper edge of the plates. In use when the platform is lowered the letters in the box will tumble out through the door opening and will be caught by the platform and side walls. The inventor of this collection box for mail chutes is Mr. R. E. Edwards, care of T. J. Kelly, 29 South Eleventh Street, Lincoln, Neb.

A NEW SOUNDING BOARD FOR PIANOS.

The soul of a piano is its sounding board. That sounding board is composed of wood carefully selected and carefully seasoned, so that it will remain constant in quality for the many years during which a piano is used. It is arched or crowned against the pressure of the strings so that the strings and the sound board may vibrate in harmony. As the piano ages the sounding board flattens. In an upright piano this flattening is accompanied by "bucking back" or cracking. The result is that hard metallic-sounding "tinny" tone so characteristic of old pianos. It is obvious that if some means were provided for permanently arching the sounding board against the pressure of the strings, the piano ought to maintain its tone for years without any tendency of the sounding board to sag.

The attempt has been made frequently. Some success has been attained in grand pianos by the employment of tension rods radiating from a center hub to the sounding board rim, but so far as we are aware no one has ever successfully equipped the upright piano with a sounding board so constructed that it would not lose its arch in time. A sounding board of this type which has been successfully applied to an upright piano has recently been invented by Mr. Frank B. Long of Los Angeles, Cal., and is illustrated in the accompanying engraving.

What Mr. Long has done can best be understood



TENSION DEVICE FOR PIANO SOUNDING BOARDS

when we consider the true function of the sounding board of a piano. The sounding board serves to sustain and amplify the tone produced when a hammer strikes the strings. Mr. Long has increased the tone sustaining and amplifying quality of the sounding board by flexible reinforcing means interposed between the sounding board and the sounding board frame, thus equalizing the flexibility of the sounding board and at the same time maintaining its relation to the sounding board frame, so that the greatest possible vitality of the sounding board is insured. From the accompanying illustration, which shows the front of an upright piano with Mr. Long's sounding board in position, it will be observed that the edge of the sounding board is subjected to pressure from screw posts interposed between the edge of the sounding board and the heavy back frame. The pressure is exerted in such a manner as to cause reflection and condensation of sound waves in accordance with the principles suggested by Helmholtz in his work on "Resonance of Sound." Besides creating this reflecting effect, the pressure post serves the additional purpose of maintaining the crowned sounding board in its original form. The back frame supporting the sounding board is reinforced by diagonal tension rods placed across each corner, as shown in the illustration.

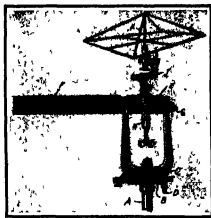
The edge of the sounding board is rabbeted and glued into a continuous laminated rim built up of hard maple runners or layers so as to produce an

exceedingly strong construction, which, however, is sufficiently flexible to yield under the pressure posts, with a view to equalizing the outward pressure on the sounding board resulting from the stretching of the strings over the surface. By the use of screw posts, any shrinkage or expansion of the sounding board and the rim can readily be equalized so as to preserve the tone and even to amplify it. The arrangement is such that a proper reflection of the vibrations of the sounding board is obtained, as the strain on the sounding board by the strings is equalized to reflect the tone.

As a result, a new combination of sounding board rim and pressure posts a small upright piano can produce a tone which is comparable with that of a small grand piano, and the full round tone of new upright piano is preserved, because the sounding board is maintained in its original arched position.

EDUCATIONAL APPLIANCES FOR DISPLAYING OBJECTS.

In the instruction of projection mechanical drawing, descriptive geometry, etc., it is important to be



EDUCATIONAL APPLIANCES FOR DISPLAYING OBJECTS.

able to show students a skeleton model of an object, large enough to be seen by an entire class, and which will show front and side elevations as well as plan and bottom views. Heretofore this has been done by using a glass box within which the object was placed, or by using wire screens for the sides of a box, which permitted the teacher to chalk mark the outline of the object. An improvement on this system is offered by the invention illustrated herewith. The model is placed on a stand provided with arms that have automatic stops at quarter revolutions to arrest the model in various positions. The apparatus comprises a vertical shaft *A*, on which is mounted a table *B* that carries a support *C*, provided with a pair of upwardly extending arms. The support *C* has in its lower part four recesses adapted to receive a spring pressed stop pin *D*. The recesses are positioned at quarter revolutions of the support. Mounted in the arms of the support is a shaft on which are secured the square blocks *E* and *F*. The block *E* is formed with four recesses adapted to receive the pin *D*. The blocks are adapted to receive a clamp *H* that carries the display stand. Model *K* is shown supported on the stand. The display stand may be moved about on three axes which are fitted with index wheels so as to incline or turn the model about in any desired angle. The inventor of this educational appliance is Mr. H. H. Harnett of 2019 Mohawk Street, Chicago. He informs us that he has used this display apparatus effectively in his own classes.

IMPROVED DETACHABLE WINDOW VENTILATOR.

The ventilator which is illustrated in the accompanying engraving may be detachably secured to the window casing so that the window may be opened a short distance to permit the entrance and escape of

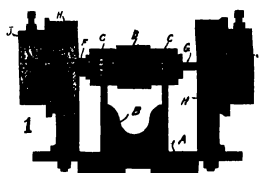


IMPROVED DETACHABLE WINDOW VENTILATOR.

air. Furthermore, the ventilator is provided with an automatic damper, which acts to prevent the entrance of unusually strong currents of air and is fitted with a buffer which serves to keep out rain or snow. The casing of the ventilator, as indicated at *C*, is quadrilateral in section, and is fitted into a hole at each end secured to the window casing. The lower edge of the casing is provided at *D* with a lip that engages the sill of the window. The sliding lengthwise of the ventilator is a bar *E*, which is formed of sheet metal bent back upon itself to form a holder for two packing strips *F* and *G* which extend in opposite directions. The packing strip *D* is adapted to fit against the sash of the window, while the other strip *F* runs as a buffer for the damper. At the opposite side of casing there is a vertical extension *H* which serves as a buffer. The screen *I* stretches from the base of this extension to the bar *E*, and serves to keep out foreign bodies that may be drawn into the ventilator by the blast of air. The damper is indicated at *A*, and consists of a plate bent back upon itself at *J* to form a reinforcing bar, while the inner end *K* is weighted so that the damper will normally come to a balance on the axis *L*. When the window is raised the damper swings to the horizontal position as indicated, but if a strong draft blows through the ventilator it will strike the under side of the inner part of the damper, lifting it up until if the wind is strong enough, it strikes the buffer *H*. When the window is closed it positively closes the window further. It is a simple matter to withdraw the spring catch *M*. The inventor of this ventilator is **WILLIAM H. HILL**, care of the Economy Ventilating Co. Metropolitan Tower, New York.

#### TESTING MACHINE.

The machine pictured herewith is designed to cut cylindrical tensons on the end of a wooden slit, particularly for use in window blinds.



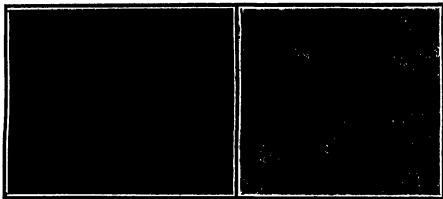
TESTING MACHINE.

usually are provided with a single central tenson, but there is another type in which two tensons are used, and sometimes the slit is provided with three tensons. The machine is designed to form any of these types of slits. It consists of a base *A* provided with a central bracket *B* formed with two bearings *C* in which is mounted an arbor shaft. The arbor shaft is provided with a pulley *D* between the bearings, and may be fitted with tools, such as shown at *F* and *G*, which depend for their form upon the nature of the work which they are to do. Opposite each end of the arbor shaft is a pedestal *H* fitted with a head *J*. In our illustration the head is broken away at the left hand side of the machine to reveal the interior construction. A cross-sectional view of the head is also shown in Fig. 2. The head is formed with an interior web *K*, and the web is formed with a flange which passes through slots in the base plate thus permitting of a lateral adjustment. In use a slit is inserted in one of the channels in the web *K*, and the end of the slit is brought into contact with one of the cutting tools. The pedestal is adjusted laterally so that the center of the slit is out of alignment with the axis of the tool and then when the slit is fed against the tool and the head *J* is revolved a circular tenson will be cut in

the end of the slit. If a large tool is used all the wood will be cut away except a single tenson, but if a smaller tool is used a central tenson may be cut, leaving enough wood projecting at each end of the slit to form two more tensons. In this way a slit with three tensons can be formed, and by properly choosing the size of the tool and laterally adjusting the pedestal the slit may be formed with two tensons. The inventor of this slit cutting machine is **MR. JOSE OLIVIERO**, Calanda del Monte, No. 356, Havana, Cuba.

#### IMPROVED JACK BLOCK.

When the journal bearings or brasses of a railroad



IMPROVED JACK BLOCK.

car become worn it is necessary to lift the journals by means of jacks so that the brasses may be removed from the car axle, and be replaced with new ones. When operating the jack it sometimes happens that the car wheel is lifted with the journal and derailed. The purpose of the invention illustrated in the accompanying engraving is to provide a device which will hold the wheel down while the journal is being lifted, and form a level surface for the jack to rest upon. The jack block is preferably made of malleable cast iron or steel, and is constructed in the form of a grating with the edges scalloped or corrugated so as to insure lightness without unduly weakening the structure. At one end of the block a handle *B* is provided and the jack is provided with an extension *C*, terminating in a toe *D*, which is adapted to fit over the rim of the car wheel. The jack block is rested on one of the sills of the railroad, and the jack is seated on the upper face of the block, close to the extension *C*. When the toe *D* is pressed down to hold the wheel to the rail, relieving the upper journal bearing of the weight of the car and permitting the wedge and brasses to be removed. For convenience in carrying the block about a handle *E* is arranged on the side of the body of the block, the location being such that the block is balanced when lifted. The inventor of this jack block is **MR. JAMES ALLEN GRAY** of Coeur d'Alene, Idaho.

**RINGING CHIMES BY PERFORATED MUSIC SHEETS.** One of the pioneer inventors of the automatic piano player, Mr. John McTannammy of New York city, has devised a system of ringing chimes of bells by perforated paper music sheets, such as are employed in pianola-playing mechanisms. Mr. McTannammy's scheme was evolved as part of a huge memorial to be erected to the memory of the men who fell in the civil war. The memorial assumed the form of a monument in which each State was to place two bells. To ring so extensive a chime by hand would obviously be a task involving superhuman muscular power. Even the present mechanical and electrical methods would probably fail because of their complexity. Hence, Mr. McTannammy devised the very ingenious system which is here illustrated.

The perforated music sheet *A* is guided by a roll *B*, and passes over a grooved roll *C*. The pins of a driving wheel *D* are adapted to engage the perforations of the music sheet *A*. The pin wheel *D* is operatively connected by means of a dog *E*, a connecting rod *F*, a rock shaft *G*, a connecting rod *H*, and an angle piece *I*, with a primary cap wheel *J*, which, upon

with the secondary star wheel *K*. The primary and secondary star wheels *L* and *M* are loosely mounted on collars on their respective shafts, and are housed between separators *N* in such a manner as to prevent them from shifting thereon, yet leaving them free to rotate with the shaft whenever it may be necessary for them to do so in the relieving mechanism. The star wheel *L* is provided with teeth on its periphery, which teeth are adapted to engage rods projecting from the star wheel *M*, whenever the star wheel *L* is released by the angle trigger *P*. The teeth of the star wheel *L* engage a slide *Q*, connected with a retractile spring-controlled clapper *R*, which rings

the bell *S*. The several shafts illustrated are geared together in such a manner as to cause the several parts to co-operate in definite order.

A tooth of the wheel *D* having entered a groove of the feed roll *C* through a perforation in the music sheet *A*, the wheel *D* turns on its shaft. In so doing it engages the dog *E*, which in turn through the connecting rods *F* and *H* trips the angle trigger *P*, thus releasing the secondary star wheel *L*, which, by the friction of its shaft, rotates into engagement with the slide *Q*, thereby pulling the slide down and withdrawing the clapper from the bell. When the slide is released by the teeth of the star wheel *L*, the retractile spring of the clapper is released, so that the clapper deals its stroke and rings the bell as the parts return to their normal positions. The wheel *D* straddles the feed roll, and is prevented from rotating except when one of its teeth fits into a perforation of

#### RINGING CHIMES BY PERFORATED MUSIC SHEETS.

the sheet and into the grooved roll, which turns the primary star wheel one degree.

The playing of the bells can be governed by clock mechanism, so as to strike the quarters and the hours and to play airs at stated intervals.

A new form of mercury interrupter has recently been invented in which there are no reciprocating parts, but the interruptions are produced by a ripple formed in a stream of mercury. The mercury is contained in a revolving wheel within which a contact piece is fixed. The mercury is thrown by centrifugal force to the inner periphery of the wheel. At one point the stream of mercury is obliged to pass over a deflector, producing a ripple or wave, and the contact piece dips into the mercury stream at this point as it revolves with the wheel. The frequency of the interruptions may be varied by making the deflector revolve slowly in the same direction as the wheel, or reversing, or in the opposite direction, as desired. It remains stationary.

# It is Easy to make advertising

claims for cars; but to make cars that will make good the claims is hard.

We ask automobile buyers to do this: After the advertisements have attracted your attention, then in fairness to yourselves and all the manufacturers, compare the cars *point by point*. That is all we ask.

There are Chalmers dealers in all parts of the United States—more than 200 of them. We suggest that you get in touch with the one nearest to you at once. Let us send you his name if you do not know him.

## Chalmers "30" \$1500

Judged by price alone you might as well buy some other car as a Chalmers: \$1500 is simply \$1500—no more in one bank than in another, no more in bills than in coin, no more in your pocket than in another man's.

It is only when you begin trying to buy something with your money that the sense of value enters your mind.

Your \$1500 is worth more than another man's \$1500, if at all, only because you are able to buy more with yours than he can buy with his.

We believe that when you buy a Chalmers "30" your \$1500 becomes worth more than \$1500 invested in any other car. Careful investigation will convince you of this fact.

Please remember you are not buying a *price* or an *advertisement*: you are buying a *car*. Therefore examine the car on its merits.

If you investigate thoroughly a Chalmers will be your *first choice*, if you are able to get a delivery in your territory.

It is difficult to get more in a car, at any price, than you can get in a Chalmers "Forty" at \$2750. The "Forty" has all the power one can want, the quality to endure, beauty of line and luxurious finish. Seats for seven if desired. Catalogue "R" on request.



## Chalmers Motor Company

Licensed under Selden Patent

Detroit, Mich., U. S. A.



Chalmers "30" Touring Car and Roadster, \$1500  
 Pony Tonneau, \$1600      Inside Drive Coupe, \$2100      Limousine, \$2750















## BIG PAY—JOB A CINCH

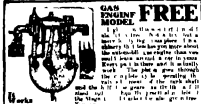


Become an Expert on the Automobile. Such Experts

**EARN \$35 to \$40 A WEEK**

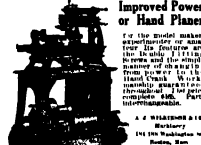
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**Earn \$75 to \$250 Per Mo.**

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# Cadillac again breaks all records for low cost of upkeep

FIFTY CARS AVERAGE CENT A MONTH

The fifty owners in Dayton, O., territory drive aggregate of 168,580 miles at total cost for repairs of \$5.70, averaging 3371 miles per car and 12 cents each for repairs.

Statistics were recently published in New York showing that 21-Cadillac "buggy" owners had driven in the cars 338,864 miles at the amazingly low repair cost of \$53.17.

It was said at that time that they constituted the most economical record of the kind in the history of transportation.

Had not the levels of the New York achievement been the claim of a record, they alone might have set the standard for the low cost of upkeep that has been achieved by the fifty owners in Dayton, O.

The 25 Cadillac owners in New York city expressed an average for the year of 71,140 miles per car, while the 50 owners in Dayton, O., drove an average of 33,864 miles per car, or \$5.70 for the insignificant average per car of 12 cents for the entire year or 1 cent per month per car.

The 25 New York owners were not alone that they drove and their expenses were so low. A month of recent and the 50 Dayton owners were likewise economical. They were running up the 500,000 miles record.

In both instances the cars were simply driven at the will of the owner, unattended and unattended. There was no particular object for economy, or more than any user would naturally have to pay.

Of the 25 Cadillac owners in New York 46 had no repairs at all and 10 had repairs of \$1.47. The 50 Dayton owners had repairs of \$5.70 for the entire year.

Of these 50 the highest expenditure was \$2.00 for a pair of tires. The 25 Cadillac owners had repairs of \$5.70 for the entire year.

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whereas the cost of the minimum expenditure of 10 cents for the entire year of 10 cents.

The New York cars involved a distance approximately 10 times around the world and the 50 Dayton Cadillac involved a distance equivalent to nearly seven trips around the globe.

Dayton comes to the front with some figures on spending consumption which are almost equally interesting, as the amazingly low cost of upkeep. For instance, the average of fuel consumption for the 50 Dayton cars shows 17 miles in the gallon of gasoline for the lowest car, and 20 miles for the best. The average consumption for the 50 Dayton cars shows 17 miles in the gallon of gasoline for the lowest car, and 20 miles for the best. The average consumption for the 50 Dayton cars shows 17 miles in the gallon of gasoline for the lowest car, and 20 miles for the best.

Concluding with the levels of the other these two statistics there have been the principal topics of discussion in the motor world.

While it is possible that there may be other factors which may show some of the low cost of upkeep and in occasional instances, yet it is safe to say that the records in the field, taken one type of car as a whole have never been so low as these records in the motor world.

The manufacturers of the Cadillac, while not alone, have been the cause of the low cost of upkeep of the Cadillac, and the cause of the low cost of upkeep of the Cadillac, and the cause of the low cost of upkeep of the Cadillac.

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## A Shower Bath Through the Brush



## Knickerbocker Fountain Spraybrush

For the most perfect shower bath, the Knickerbocker Fountain Spraybrush is the only one that gives the shower bath and massage in one.

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## LEARN TO BE A WALKERMAN

Realistic Psychology Institute

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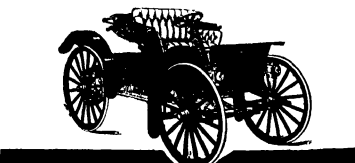
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## The Easiest Car to Operate

You will not only find the I H C auto buggy the easiest to drive, but it is so simple and easy to operate that your family can use it with perfect safety. On pleasure trips anywhere, over all roads, up hill, through and mud, the I H C gets there and back quickly, safely and surely.

## The I H C Auto Buggy

will travel any road at 1 to 20 miles an hour. The large wheels protect you from any when going over rocks, clods and bumps. The solid rubber tires make punctures and "blow-outs" impossible.

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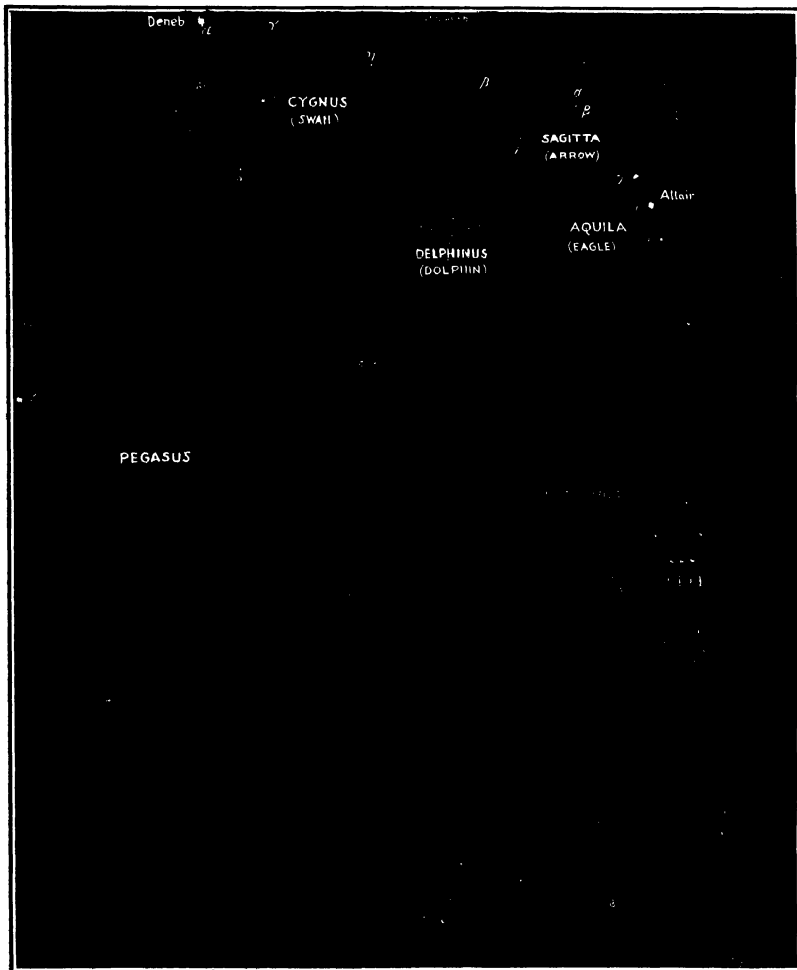
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Halley's comet is now visible to the naked eye in the eastern skies, just before dawn. Its appearance on May 2nd, one hour before sunrise, is here depicted.  
HALLEY'S COMET AT ITS BRIGHTEST.—(See page 817)

## ESTABLISHED 1842

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MILWAUKEE, Wis., Office 262 Broadway, New York

NEW YORK, SATURDAY, APRIL 16th, 1910.

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THE WORLD'S FAIR OF THE FUTURE

[illegible]GYROSCOPIC EFFECT OF REVOLVING AEROPLANE  
MOTORS.

THEY were certain conditions in the recent fatal accident to the *Ilon* which suggest that the aerograph effect of the motor may have been concentrated to the right of the fuselage, a light breeze from the blower type driven by a Gnome resulting motor. The aeroplane, although apparently intact and in good working order before becoming unmanageable and turning completely over, fell in a steep climb, and the engine, which was a 100-horsepower motor running at 1,200 revolutions per minute, must have been considerable. A sudden turning of the aeroplane to the right or left by the action of the aerograph effect would have been sufficient to cause a steep flying tendency in the longitudinal direction. If this tendency were aggravated by a gust of wind, it is conceivable that the aircraft would be unable to recover. The accident occurred on the 10th of September 1910. At the time of his fall Le Dron was flying above the bay at San Sebastian Spain. In a high gusty wind it is not possible that the joint action of the aerograph effect and the wind could have caused the crash and propeller was responsible for the disaster? This tragic death of (Ladrangue when he was using a monoplane equipped with the same type of motor suggests that the aerograph effect may have been due to the propeller, to the fuselage, or to the engine.

GUN RECORDS IN OUR OWN AND THE BRITISH NAVY

**W**E are frequently asked by correspondents to give some comparative figures about the relative excellence of the shooting in our own and other navies. We would gladly do so, but it is a fact that there is no information regarding the matter of the world more difficult to obtain than this. France and Germany, in particular never giving to the world the results of target practice. Both the United States and Great

Britain however, do publish such figures. But even here it is often difficult to establish accurate comparisons, because the data which is made public is seldom complete, either the range or the size of the target being frequently omitted, and no statement being made as to whether target or ship or both were moving. However, we offer the following comparison, which is based upon official figures.

The Engineer of London states that the results for the past year have shown that each 12-inch and 10-inch gun has averaged 0.63 hit, each 9-inch gun 0.194 hits, and each 7.5-inch gun 2.47 hits, these being the average number of hits per gun per minute for the whole navy. The 6-inch 47-inch, and 4-inch guns varied from slightly over 4 hits per minute for the 6-inch to 9 hits per minute for the 4-inch.

By the courtesy of Rear Admiral Mason, Chief of the Bureau of Ordnance we are enabled to publish the average results obtained on all the guns on all the ships taking part in target practice in the United States navy. Whether the ranges and the size of the targets corresponded to those in the British navy, we are unable to say. The results are, for the 12-inch guns 0.72 hit per gun per minute, for the 10-inch 0.76, for the 8-inch, 1.83 and for the 7-inch, 3.13 hits per gun per minute, while the results obtained with the 6-inch, 4-inch, 4-inch, and 1-inch were practically the same as those obtained in the British navy. On the 7-inch gun holds the remarkable record of 10.25 hits per minute, while the highest score with the 12-inch gun firing when the ship was under way in smooth water, was 4 hits per gun per minute obtained on the United States ship "Ohio."

### CERTAIN ADVANTAGES OF LIQUID FUEL

[illegible][illegible]

## ANCIENT AND MODERN IRRIGATION

**A** STRONG sentimental interest will be aroused by the announcement that the great irrigation works, which at the very dawn of history rendered the land of Mesopotamia a garden of fertility, are now being repeated on an extensive scale under the same engineer who was responsible for the very successful irrigation works in the valley of the Nile. Our United States Consul at Bagdad, Turkey, speaking of the importance of these works says that if the plan should succeed only 10,000, 15,000, or 20,000 tons of wheat, cotton and fruit and other products of that part of the world would be lost. A total of 125,000,000 acres of land is to be reclaimed at an estimated cost of \$18 per acre, and so fertile is the land, when properly irrigated, that its estimated

value, according to the Turkish government, will be \$155 per acre, the soil being capable of yielding large crops of wheat, barley, and cotton.

We spoke of sentiment entering into the intercourse with which we regard this work, and there is certainly something that appeals strongly to the imagination in the fact that both in ancient Egypt and even more ancient Mesopotamia, the Anglo-Saxons after a lapse of four or five thousand years, should be repeating on a larger scale and with the greater accident rendered possible by modern appliances those features of irrigation which are one of the chief glories of the ancient, but never-to-be-forgotten, races that once flourished in the valleys of the Nile and the Euphrates.

Whatever may be the future fate of the great Ario-Baxon race, the vast works of irrigation which have been carried out in India and in Egypt and is now actively prosecuting in Mesopotamia, must ever stand out as one of the brightest evidences of its civilizing and uplifting activity.

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The work already accomplished consists in the provision of dams headworks, etc., and the \$20,000,000 now required is for the purpose of utilizing the water so stored, by the construction of canals for distributing the supply upon the millions of acres which only await its arrival to bring into instant fertility.

### TEMA OF TUNGSTEN LAMP

**I**N a bulletin recently issued by the University of Illinois T H Amrine and A Guell present the results of an important study of various types of tungsten and incandescent lamps a study which should prove of considerable interest in view of the growing importance of metallic filament illumination. The conclusions of their investigation may be thus summarised

Comparisons of the durability of filaments made by the cold-chamber, deposition, and paste processes are very difficult to make because the three types are usually used for different purposes. The cold-chamber process for mounting the filament has a great effect on its life, and to whether the superior life of one mounting is due to the fact that it has a better scheme of monitoring and control, or to the fact that the filament is better, can hardly be decided definitely from these tests. Tests of filaments made by the three processes are being made, but the results are not yet available. It is to decide the question definitely. From the tests described, however, the cold-chamber process seems to give a filament that is less durable than the other two. The paste process seems to give a filament that is more durable to a surprising degree, depending upon the kind of lamps used and upon the conditions under which the lamps are used. The cold-chamber process gives high operating life, as the old car taillight bulbs are still in operation under conditions, whereas other lamps will give good results under those same conditions. Under the best conditions, the cold-chamber process gives the best results, but the market gives excellent results. Their efficiency is maintained in a remarkable way and the life is very long, often several times what the advertised life is. The cold-chamber process is the only one that has been reduced to a small fraction of what was formerly common. Of two hundred lamps purchased for the tests, only three hundred lamps could be used without broken filaments and although the lamps in the tests were handled dozens of times, almost no trouble was experienced so far as the breaking of filaments.

ENGINEERING.

The Minister of Public Works of Panama will shortly ask for bids for the construction of a railroad from Panama to David, a distance of 200 miles. Bids will be asked also for some branch line to Boma del Toro, and from Panama to Los Santos.

The Navy Department recommends an appropriation of \$10,000 for prizes, etc., to be awarded ships in competition for prizes for the construction of a vessel for consumption. It is estimated by the Department that competitors of this character have resulted, and will continue to result, in a saving of ten per cent in coal consumption.

In spite of the steady increase in passenger travel in this city, the opening of the new East River bridge is beginning to tell heavily upon the traffic over the East River ferries. The Union Ferry Company of Brooklyn has been obliged to discharge three boat crews, and change the schedule on three different lines from a 10-minute to a 30-minute headway.

Acting on the recommendation of the Public Service Commission, the Interborough Company of this city will install cars with destination signs on the elevated lines, which will automatically tell the name of the station the train is approaching. The great convenience of this method of telling the traveling public will be out of all proportion to the small cost of putting it in place.

The British Navy estimates for the present year call for five bath-tubs of the draught-proof type, five protective cruizers of 25 knots and six motor launches, a number of submarines, and two floating docks. In closing the ships to be laid down this year, the draught-proof hull or building for the three leading naval powers are for Great Britain, 27, Germany, 17, United States, 10.

Speaking on the subject of defective open-heart rails, at the last annual convention of the American Society for Testing Materials Robert Tob emphasized the fact that the mere term "open heart" is itself no guarantee that the rails made under that system will give good service, since they are subject to the same general defects of manufacture as Bessemer rails, and hence require equal care during rolling etc.

The Pennsylvania Railroad recently ran its first Pullman train from Harrison, N. J., by way of its new tunnel system to the Hudson River. It will be three or four months, however, before the whole system is thrown open for public service. The tunnels to Long Island, upon the plans of the company minority will be publicly opened on the Hudson River, and those to the westward of the Hudson River by about the 15th of July.

The Army Board is making some important experiments to determine the resisting power of a solid mass of concrete, as compared with a pile of concrete. A test with a 15-kiln gun, a shot was fired which penetrated the concrete for a distance of 21 feet, which is equivalent to the piercing of a 15-inch armor plate. The target is now being reconstructed for tests with the new 14-kiln gun, which it is expected will give even better results.

The Director of the Royal Dockyard at Castellamare, Italy, has produced, if the reports are to be believed, a torpedo boat without funnels. By means of electrical ventilators the products of combustion are discharged from the vessel without the assistance of smokestacks. The first experiments, on a trip from Castellamare to Naples, were successful. It will be very successful, no smoke being shown and the vessel going up steam with great rapidity.

The shortage or surplage of freight cars is one of the reliable indications of business activity, if not of business prosperity. The surplus of cars which existed at the time of the panic in November, 1907, was gradually reduced until it was wiped out in the autumn of 1909. To-day, not only is there no surplus, but the indications are that during the coming season there will be a large shortage, due to the steadily increasing volume of business.

The Hudson and Manhattan Railroad Company has built two steel cars which are specially designed for transporting baggage between the steam railway terminals, which are served by the Hudson River tunnels. With a view to avoiding extra handling and trucking, each car is arranged to receive eight loaded baggage trucks, which are loaded and unloaded between platform and car over folding steel plate aprons, which form part of the permanent attachments of the car.

The Italian Civil Commission has called for the manufacture, delivery, and erection of about 50,000 tons of steel plates, to be used in the construction of the forty-six mitering lock gates of two leaves each on the Panama Canal. These are the largest lock gates ever built. They are all about 66 feet wide, and vary from 47 feet to 80 feet in height. When they close the other on end they would make a tower 1,175 miles in height. The contract will be worth about \$2,000,000.

ELECTRICITY.

At Harvard University a wireless telephone club has been formed with a view to studying wireless telegraphy, and one of the special objects is to discover some method of overcoming amateur interference.

Some time ago the United States Steel Corporation installed two Heroult furnaces, one at Worcester, Mass., and the other at South Chicago. These furnaces have been in constant service ever since, doing twelve heats per day. It requires between an hour and an hour and a half to refine a metric ton of steel and 100 kilowatt hours are consumed to dephosphorize and desulphurize the metal. The cost of repairs on the furnace has amounted to about six cents per ton of steel, and the electrodes are consumed at the rate of six pounds per ton.

A test of the telephone service in Wisconsin was recently made by a commission. The investigation was carried on secretly, so as to determine the actual conditions of service. It was found that the average time between a call and a response was 478 seconds. The quoted average response came in 173 seconds and the slowest in 773 seconds. Those exchanges which most quickly responded to a call were found to be more efficient in every other respect as well, so that this single test provided a gauge of the service offered by the exchange.

It is remarkable that while wireless telegraphy has made rapid strides very important considerations have been almost entirely neglected. Much attention has been paid to attunement and selectivity and also to the refinement of instruments while the development of the antenna has been slow. At the receiving station particularly not much has been done toward locating the antenna wires so as to intercept a maximum of wave energy. Aside from Braun's fan shaped grid which marked an epoch very little along this line has been extensively adopted in practice.

A telephone cable loaded with Pupin coils was laid in Lake Constantine in 1906. This was a lead-covered cable and it was very difficult to lay it on account of its great weight. Mr. Dismont, who laid the cable has been experimenting with loaded submarine telephone cables and has evolved a construction which is to be used across the English Channel to connect London with Paris. The cable is covered with gutta percha and wire sheathing and the loading coils have been introduced so ingeniously as to increase the dielectric constant of the cable from one to ten. So gradually is the cable swelled at the loading points, that it can be paid out over a four foot sheave wheel. The cable has been tested in salt water for fifteen months. From time to time has been subjected to a pressure of four tons per square inch.

A series of tests has recently been made to determine the strength of the metallic filaments of lamps and their resistance to shock. The lamps were tested by placing them at the bottom of inclined planes, and rolling rubber balls filled with lead down the plane. The shock was varied by starting the balls at different distances from the lamps. It was found that with lamps of equal voltage the strength of the filament varied inversely as the candle-power and for lamps of equal candle-power the strength varied inversely as the voltage. In some lamps it was found that certain parts were more sensitive to shock than the filaments. When the filaments were broken to a white heat they became too flexible to be broken by a shock, but the loops were distorted under repeated blows until the coils were bent into a circle. The resistance of filaments of white wire is the object of a paper presented to the Académie des Sciences by Messrs. Maurin and Warcollier. Previously they studied the action of ultra violet rays from a quartz mercury vapor lamp upon the cathode coating of vacuum tubes. The same apparatus they made researches upon sparkling white wire and found how much time it took for the wire to act upon different thicknesses of paper so as to destroy the forming principle and thus prevent any new fermentation. Using layers of wire of 1/4 millimeter (0.01 inch) held between a 0.8 inch quartz plate and a glass plate and exposed to the lamp so that the lamp was 1.6 inches distant, they found that fermentation was stopped in all cases for an exposure of above 10 seconds and never for an exposure below 5 seconds. With 17 millimeters (0.67 inch) the distance from the lamp to the paper, any fermentation was always stopped after an exposure of over 1 minute and never in less than 30 seconds. It is to be noted that in the case of pure cedar, it was used an exposure of 10 seconds for 10 minutes for the first mentioned thickness of layer, and sterilization is not reached even after 15 minutes exposure for a 0.04 inch layer. Thus it will be seen that the sterilization of white wire is actually carried out than that of cedar, this being no doubt due to the fact that the wire is more transparent to ultra-violet rays.

SCIENCE.

Prof. Hilprecht's tablet, said to uphold the Biblical account of the Deluge, was discussed at a meeting of the American Oriental Society at Johns Hopkins University. Prof. G. A. Barton, of Johns Hopkins University, and Prof. Paul Haupt of Johns Hopkins University, and Prof. Albert T. Clay of Yale University, thought that Prof. Hilprecht had been too imaginative in interpreting the fragmentary inscriptions. It is asserted that the restoration made by Prof. Hilprecht in Akkadian broken lines were conjectural emendations. Prof. Hilprecht's claim that the tablet was written some time between 2000 and 2500 B. C. is also questioned. It being stated that the tablet belongs to a much later period.

The perfume and flavor of vanilla are due to a substance called vanillin, which also occurs as the constituent of numerous resins. Vanillin has been made synthetically by Tiemann and Maarmann from coniferin, a glucoside which is found in various species of conifers. The same chemists subsequently made the commercial synthesis of vanillin possible by substituting eugenol for coniferin. The price of vanillin has fallen from \$770 per pound in 1876 to 44 per pound in 1909. A further reduction is scarcely possible because of the high prices of eugenol. Hence chemists have been experimenting in another direction and Guyot and Gry have applied to the preparation of vanillin the general methods of synthesis of aromatic aldehydes. Their experiments were recently discovered by Gayol. Their experiments are described in a recent number of the Bulletin de la Société de Chimie.

The price of pure natural rubber, which in 1903 was 80 cents per pound, rose last year to \$2.25 per pound. This increase in price gives additional interest to the processes of regeneration of waste rubber and of the manufacture of substitutes. The regeneration of vulcanized Indian rubber consists in removing the sulphur, which was added in the process of vulcanization. The scrap rubber is assorted according to quality and is treated either with sulphuric acid or with potash, for the purpose of destroying fibers of cloth, etc., and of removing the greater part of the sulphur. The material is then ground and washed. This reground vulcanized rubber is used only in small quantities in small proportions to new rubber. Artificial or imitation rubber is made by methods which resemble the process of vulcanizing natural rubber, for example by treating flaxseed oil with sulphur or sulphur chloride.

One of the most interesting results of the Smithsonian African Expedition has just been published by Mr. Gerrit H. Miller Jr., curator of the Division of Mammals. It is a description of the skulls of Hippopotamuses. There have been for some years in the collections of the National Museum two skulls of hippopotamuses, one of which was from the East African Expedition and the other from Angola West Africa. These skulls differed materially in several details of form, chiefly in the contour of the shape of the rostrum, but the characters were not deemed of sufficient value to justify the creation of a new species for the difference might have been due to individual variations. The receipt of eight skulls from British East Africa collected by the Smithsonian African Expedition showed conclusively that the individual variations were so slight in the East African specimens that Mr. Miller was led to believe that the two skulls represented distinct species, one from East Africa and one from West Africa. A critical study of the skulls revealed other differences in their characters that were of sufficient importance to justify Mr. Miller in making a new species of hippopotamus from the specimens to which he gives the name *constrictus*.

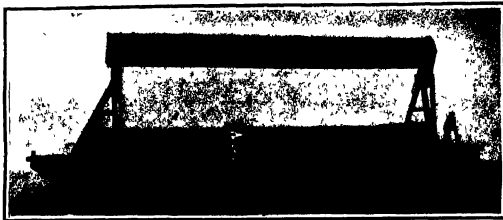
The bag bags of modern balloons are made of a cotton fabric coated with India rubber in the most careful manner, in order to ensure perfect impermeability without sacrificing lightness. For all large balloons, and especially for dirigibles two layers of cloth are superposed and cemented together. The outer skin is covered with India rubber, and the inner skin with the inner canvas is coated on both sides. In German balloons the inner canvas is cut straight and the outer canvas is cut bias. In this construction great care is given to the cutting of the canvas, for it is the cutting which causes a slight increase in weight. French balloon makers prefer to cut both canvases straight. Experiments show that the tensile strength of the canvas is not increased by the use of the straight cut. The same method of construction has its advantages and its defects. As India rubber, even when vulcanized, is altered by exposure to light, the canvas is covered with India rubber in order to prevent the light from reaching the rubber. The use of ultra-violet rays, which are the most active. The plant used in France is chromatic of lead, which unfortunately must be applied to the canvas before it is coated with rubber and is such consequently equal in all directions. Each method of construction has its advantages and its defects. As India rubber, even when vulcanized, is altered by exposure to light, the canvas is covered with India rubber in order to prevent the light from reaching the rubber. The use of ultra-violet rays, which are the most active. The plant used in France is chromatic of lead, which unfortunately must be applied to the canvas before it is coated with rubber and is such consequently equal in all directions. Each method of construction has its advantages and its defects. 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## THE "VIKING"—SELF-DUMPING DECK SCOW.

BY THE ENGINEERING DEPARTMENT OF THE VIKING ARMORY.

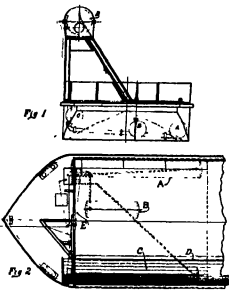
A novel system of self-dumping scow, especially designed for the discharge of rock and solid debris has been devised by Mr. A. S. Viking, machine and ship-builder of Stockholm. At this point the economical dumping of such material into the water is of particular interest inasmuch as the blasting of rock in

equilibrium of the latter is upset merely by forcing water through the agency of compressed air into the elevated tank, which causes the scow to fill over and shoot its load. Should the flush deck be fitted with low bulwarks, these are fashioned in the form of bottom hinged doors on the discharging side, so that they fall down as the barge heels over, and permit the load to be shot cleanly



After dumping, the scow returns to an even keel.

connection with the extensions to the harbor or the streets of the city is in continuous progress. Several designs for automatic dumping have been evolved, but the "Viking" system so called after its designer, has been the first to be submitted to practical test and has proved remarkably successful. Through the courtesy of the inventor we are enabled to illustrate and describe this new barge. It differs in its action from any



A, B, C, D, etc., ballast tanks by the emptying and filling of which the scow is dumped and righted.

End elevation and half-deck plan of scow.

other vessels of this class in service inasmuch as in stead of the contents being dumped through self-open flap doors in the bottom of the hull the scow is tipped over on its beam ends by a very simple action. The load is carried on a flush deck or the latter is fitted with low bulwarks. On one side, extending the full length of the scow is an elevated cylindrical tank *D*, mounted about 16 feet above the level of the deck on two tripods. When it is desired to dump the barge, the

cylinder which at first is empty, but which is always open to the outer atmosphere through a small pipe

The water vessel *A* in the body of the pontoon is in open communication by means of a pipe *E* with the elevated tank, and the former is also in connection by another pipe with a valve box placed at the foot of the tripod carrying the upper tank. When the valve in this box is in its initial position, this second communicating pipe is open to the free atmosphere. The

compressed-air vessel is also connected to this valve box, but is shut off from the same until ready for dumping. The third vessel below the elevated cylinder, as already mentioned, is always open to the free atmosphere through a pipe, but there is a second pipe and valve provided in connection with the main communicating pipe between the first water tank and the elevated cylinder. It will thus be seen that there is always open communication between the first water tank and the elevated cylinder by means of a main pipe which is carried up alongside the vertical leg of the tripod at one end. In addition there is a smaller air pipe running up one of the triangular legs and passing right into the body of the tank, having its outlet near the top of the cylinder itself. This pipe is in connection with the outer atmosphere, so that normally the upper vessel is full of air.

The load is stowed on deck in the manner shown in the illustration. When rock is heaped in bulwarks on three sides only are necessary, the fourth side from which dumping is effected, below the elevated tank, being left quite open or at the most having only a low ridge. If soft material is carried, hinged doors, as already described, may be used, these automatically opening under the pressure from the load on deck when the scow is inclined in the dumping operation, and falling flat and clear so as not to obstruct the shoot.

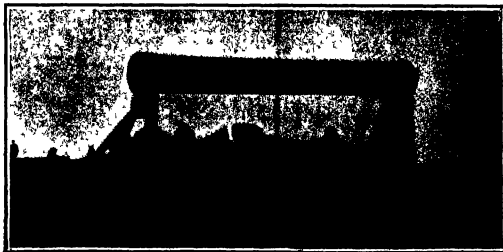
When the loaded barge has been towed to the dumping site, a cord is pulled connecting the mechanism of the scow with the tug. This opens a valve, which permits the compressed air to flow to the valve box, and also a slide valve in the latter, whereby the compressed air is admitted into the lower water vessel *A*. The pressure exerted forces the water from the lower tank into the elevated cylinder *D*, the displaced air in the latter escaping, and, as the upper tank becomes charged, the barge loses its equilibrium, heels over on the elevated tank side, and the load slips off the inclined deck into the water. When the load is shot the control cord is again pulled, the slide valve in the



The scow tilted and load sliding into the water.

valve box is returned to its normal position, cutting off the supply of compressed air to the lower water tank, and at the same time opening the latter to the free air.

The load may slip off the deck at varying inclinations, this factor depending on the friction between the load and the deck and the character of the debris. If the slipping takes place early, at a low deck inclination, the upper cylinder may never reach the water, for the scow rights itself immediately the load is discharged. Should such result, the water forced into the elevated tank returns to the lower water tank directly the compressed-air supply to the latter is cut off by the second pull of the cord controlling the mechanism. It may happen, however, that the scow heels right over, and the upper tank is brought into the water, the barge thus floating in an inclined position. To bring it back to the upright position a third pull is given to the control rope, which at once opens the communication between the upper tank *D* and the water vessel *C* placed immediately below it in the hold. As this latter tank is always placed in a position lower than the elevated cylinder, the water must flow by gravitation into it. When a sufficient quantity of water has passed from the upper to the lower cylinder, the barge rights itself, and the water remaining in the elevated tank as well as that in the tank immediately below, returns to the main water cylinder on the opposite side of the vessel in the hold, by gravitation. This accomplished, a fourth pull on the control cord returns all parts to their original position. The compressed air is fed into its vessel by means of a hose coupled to a valve in the top of the air chest, and when sufficiently charged the valve is closed and the hose removed. When the barge is in an upright position, all water in



Loaded and ready for dumping.

THE "VIKING"—A SELF-DUMPING DECK SCOW.



the elevated tank, or the one immediately below it, must return to the first tank on the opposite side of the barge, as this latter is placed at the lowest point, the return being purely gravitational. It will also be seen that the water circulating between the tanks cannot escape. Glycoline is mixed with the water to prevent freezing in cold weather, so that the system can be used any time of the year irrespective of climatic conditions.

The scow shown in the accompanying illustrations is in daily service at Stockholm, and has proved eminently satisfactory to the engineers of the port. The results that have been obtained prove that this self-dumping barge is superior to the ordinary hopper type with false bottoms. It is cheaper in first cost and maintenance, can handle rock of practically any size and weight within its total capacity, and is a first-class craft for any harbor transport. If desired, the elevated cylinder can be unaltered in a couple of hours and the barge used as an ordinary lighter. The system is applicable to any type of barge whether of the blunt-ended type or one of fine lines. It is only necessary to insure a sufficient breadth to counteract the influence from the sun. The success of the flush-deck type has induced the inventor to extend the idea to craft with high holds for handling gravel, mud, and other semi-liquid or soft material, which cannot be accommodated on a flush deck.

#### HALLEY'S COMET AT ITS BRIGHTEST

BY HERBERT NORMAN CORNELL, Ph.D., PROFESSOR OF ASTRONOMY AT PRINCETON UNIVERSITY

It may have seemed remarkable to many people that so long a time has elapsed since the first observation of Halley's comet at its present return, and yet it has not shown itself at all to ordinary eyes. The accompanying illustration (Fig. 1) will help to explain this. When first detected last September with very powerful telescopic aid it was far beyond the limits of our diagram, at twice the distance of Mars from the sun, and nearly as remote from the earth. At first the two

nominally speaking, almost over our south pole, and quite variable from northern latitudes. It therefore appears that the present conditions are almost ideally favorable for observers placed as we are, north of the equator.

The illustration on the first page shows better than any verbal description were to look for the comet in the morning sky in New York. The moon and Venus

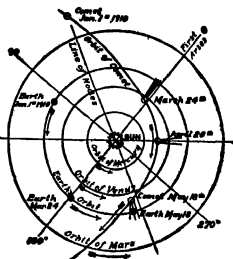


Fig. 1—RELATIVE POSITIONS OF HALLEY'S COMET, THE EARTH, AND THE SUN

are shown in the positions which they will occupy about May 1st, when, on the whole, the comet can be seen to the best advantage. At an earlier date, Venus was higher in the sky, compared with the comet. There was less trouble then from moonlight, but the comet was not rise so early—about 4 A. M. on April 15th as against 2 A. M. on the later date.

The comet's brightness when it appears in the evening sky about May 20th will be sufficient to render any finding diagram unnecessary. It will only be needful to look toward the west half an hour or more before the comet gets which it does at 8 20 P. M. on the 20th 8 15 on the 21st, and 8 55 on the 22nd, after which it will be clearly visible until after 10 P. M.

Our other illustrations which appear here through the courtesy of Profs. Frost and Barnard of the Yerkes Observatory show the appearance and character of the comet earlier in its apparition. Fig. 2 illustrates its extreme faintness at the time of its redi- (which was announced by Prof. Wolf of Heidelberg less than a week before the earliest of the four photographs here shown was taken) while it was 100 million miles distant, both from the earth and from the sun. On any one plate it is difficult, if not impossible to distinguish the comet from the multitude of faint stars around it, but on comparing the four (which show exactly the same region of the sky) it is easy to see that the stars are the same in all, while the comet is 'here to-day and gone to-morrow.'

With the great Yerkes telescope (which gives far smaller and sharper images of the stars than can be reproduced on any known photographic plate) the comet was even at this time quite different from the stars in appearance. In Prof. Barnard's words, "a flick of light surrounded by a faint nebula" with no

definite boundary. His measure, made on several nights, show that its actual diameter was about 12,000 miles.

Our second illustration, from a photograph taken when the comet was 143 million miles from the sun, and 163 million from us, shows it already well advanced in the changes which invariably accompany the approach of any considerable comet to its perihelion. The head of the comet has become larger—not merely in apparent size, owing to its approach to us but actually in miles, while a faint slender tail, pointed away from the sun, makes its appearance. As Fig. 3 shows, the tail, which extends directly away from the sun, was at this time also nearly in line behind the head as seen from the earth so that its actual length must have been much greater than it appears to be—about five million miles, according to Prof. Barnard.

This considerable development of the tail, while the comet was still at two and one-half times its least distance from the sun, makes it probable that at and after the perihelion passage, on April 20th it will be much longer, probably long enough to envelop the earth as it sweeps past.

Our third illustration shows the spectrum of the comet photographed on January 14th, when it was about 170 million miles from the sun.

In taking such a photograph, a prism is placed in front of the camera. The light of a star is thus drawn out into a line which, by letting it trail on the plate is broadened into a band, crossed by the dark lines which tell us what absorbing gases exist in the star's atmosphere. Most of the objects on the plate are the spectra of stars near the comet obtained in this way. The comet's spectrum is near the middle between the two very broad and conspicuous comparison spectra, which were produced by exposing the camera on some bright star, and serves as reference marks to find the position of the lines in the spectrum of the comet itself. The latter unlike that of the stars consists

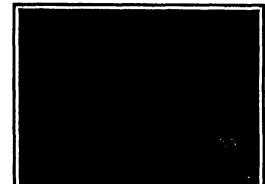


Fig. 4—Spectrum of Halley's comet

Photographed at the Yerkes Observatory by Prof. Frost, January 14th 1910. The spectrum of the comet is in the middle between the two brightest star-spectra. No description is left. The line and of the spectrum is on the left, the stars on the right.

hodie approached each other rapidly, but before the end of the year our planet crossed the line joining the comet with the sun, and by January 1st, as the figure shows, we were moving almost straight away from it. During the early part of the year the earth and comet passed on opposite sides of the sun, so that it was lost to our view early in March.

About the time that this is printed it will come into sight again, on the other side of the sun, rising before daybreak. But now its path has curved so that it is coming toward us—almost directly, if we take our notion into account as well as its own. It therefore seems to stand almost still among the stars, while growing steadily larger and brighter, so that any one might tell by its mere change in appearance that it was approaching us rapidly.

Finally, about the middle of May the comet will apparently approach the sun again, and on the 18th it will pass in front of him, literally between us and the sun, transiting the latter's disk. If at this time its tail is more than fifteen million miles in length we will pass through it, as the figure shows.

The comet's closest approach to us comes two days later, on May 20th, when it is but fourteen million miles away. For a few days following this it will be splendidly visible in the evening sky, and then it will fade gradually as it recedes from us.

It is clear from the diagram that this apparition of the comet is an exceptionally favorable one, for it passes the earth almost at the point where their orbits come nearest to one another. If it had returned only three weeks earlier, it would have come as near as possible—only seven million miles—but at this time it would have been directly south of the earth, astro-

\* Prof. Barnard has informed us that the tail was 14,000,000 miles long on February 22nd, from which it may well be inferred that it is being longer than 14,000,000 miles now—B.N.

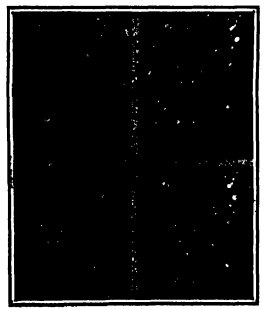


Fig. 5—Halley's comet at its reappearance in 1909.

From photographs taken by Mr. Lee with the two-foot reflector of the Yerkes Observatory. These four photographs represent the same portion of the sky. The stars point to the comet which appears like a faint star but moves from right to left.

Fig. 3—Halley's comet on February 28, 1910.

From a photograph taken at the Yerkes Observatory by Prof. Barnard. As the instrument was kept pointed at the comet during the exposure the stars appear as short streaks. The actual length of the comet's tail is about five million miles.

many of bright bands or lines three of which are conspicuous. The brightest of these as is shown by comparison with the hydrogen lines of the comparison spectrum is the so-called 'H' band at the extreme violet end of the visual spectrum. The others are probably as in the case of other comets, also due to gaseous compounds of carbon.

Between these bright bands can be seen a faint continuous spectrum, due to reflected sunlight.

When the comet first appeared the photographs made at the Lick Observatory showed this continuous spectrum alone. At that time it must have been shining entirely by reflected light, but by the date of our illustration it had already begun to be self-luminous. This is corroborated by the fact that its bright lines increased much more rapidly than could be explained by the mere increase in the amount of reflected light, due to its approach to the sun and to us.

This intrinsic light of the comet, as its spectrum shows, is given off by luminous gas, but we do not yet know what makes this gas shine. It can hardly be high temperature, for the comet had just come from the depths of interplanetary space, and did not yet receive nearly as much heat from the sun as the earth does. It must, however, be due to some kind of solar action, for it increases very rapidly as a comet approaches the sun. We can reproduce the same spectrum in the laboratory by passing an electrical discharge through a vacuum tube containing compounds of carbon and nitrogen at very low pressure.

It is of special interest that, even if the carbon compounds form but a small percentage of the gas in the tube, their spectrum becomes very prominent when the pressure is made very small say  $1/100,000$  of that of ordinary air. It may be, therefore, that at the lowest pressures carbon compounds have an exceptional capacity for emitting light. It is worth noting to conclude that they are the principal gaseous com-

altitude of the comet, because they give off almost all the light.

It may be added that the cyanogen bands in the spectrum are produced not only by the poisonous gas of that name, but in all cases where carbon and nitrogen are together under electrical excitement. For example they are very strong in the spectrum of an ordinary arc light where the nitrogen comes from the air and the carbon from the carbon rods. It would be somewhat reasonable to conclude that an arc light was poisonous, after looking at it through a spectroscopic from a distance, so to make the same deduction about a comet.

What very may be the origin of this intrinsic light of comets?

It is responsible for most of the phenomena which make them of general interest for almost all the light of the tail as well as of the head of a bright comet is of this kind. If Halley's comet alone by reflected sunlight alone it would be barely visible to the naked eye, even under the most favorable circumstances.

Actually owing to its intrinsic light it has been a conspicuous object at every return for the last 2,000 years. The only gap in the record—in A. D. 912—has lately been filled by the discovery of unmistakable evidence in old legends of its return.

The actual quantity of matter composing it must however be very small as compared with the amount of light which it is possible to form a rough guess as to by considering the distance and the amount of light which it reflects when it is not shining on its own account. From the estimates of magnitude made last September, it appears that a single body only a little over half a mile in diameter, and of the comet would have sent us as much reflected light provided that its reflecting power was equal to that of the moon, which is less than that of most of the planets.

It is, therefore, clear that the comet must be composed of separate particles widely separated. The whole cross-section of the comet (15,000 miles in diameter) is about 120 million square miles, while the total area of all the reflecting particles, according to the above estimate is about 1,000 square miles. A ray of sunlight falling on it has therefore less than one chance in 100,000 of being stopped, and all the rest of it getting through some empty space. It is no wonder that comets are transparent, and that stars can be seen through them. If we only knew how big these particles were, we could tell by considering their number and their total mass. But here we are quite in the dark. As the light of the comet seems uniformly diffused and it shows no signs of resolution into points of light, the number of particles must be at least by counts by thousands. Their average diameter must therefore be less than a mile, though they may vary enormously in size. If all gathered into one compact group they would be small as compared to bulk the satellites of Mars or the smallest of the asteroids.

But how much smaller than this limit their actual dimensions may be we do not know. If, purely for illustration, we suppose that they average an inch across, there would be some five or six million numbers of them. This sounds like an enormous number, but if we calculate the bulk of the comet we find that there would be only five or six particles per cubic mile of space on the average inside it. Near the center they would doubtless be more closely packed, and more thickly toward the ends of the comet. The combined bulk of all these particles would be about 80 million cubic yards—a large amount from the engineering standpoint but not equal to the quantity of water which fills within the limits of the smallest basin in the Union during a heavy rainstorm. This may serve to give us some idea of the extreme tenuity of the comet as a whole. If we took a spoon as big as the comet, and filled it with water to the diameter as the earth, and poured ordinary golf balls through it at the rate of two or three per cubic mile, leaving the intervening space absolutely vacant, we would get something like the number of particles of Halley's comet if put alongside it when it first appeared.

The gaseous matter which gives most of the light at perihelion probably consists of solid particles as these grow warm under the sun's heat when they approach it. As the gas becomes luminous under solar action, the brightness of the comet increases and its outer regions originate in the heat of the sun. The reflecting particles we estimate to influence our eyes, gradually come into view.

Some of this is repelled from the head of the comet, by little-known forces, and others are struck away by the action of the sunlight, which, as is well known, exerts a force of repulsion which, if a particle is exceedingly small as are the gaseous molecules, is stronger than the attractive force of the sun.

This arises the long and magnificent tail which, like the smoke-trail of a steamer at sea is ever being renewed at one end and fading away at the other, even though it seems to accompany the comet in its journey

As the comet recedes from the sun, much of this gaseous matter has thus been lost, never to be re-accumulated. Some of the remainder probably condenses around the solid particles when they become cold, and is drawn into comets.

The comet is thus gradually losing its substance, and in the course of ages may be deprived of all its solid forming material, and lose its former story. This would be what has actually happened to some of the period comets, one at least of which has disappeared altogether.

Halley's comet is perhaps preserved from such a fate by its long interval between its returns to the region near the sun, where its activity takes place. It may be, too, that it has more of the right sort of material to spare for a tail. But the time may come when most of this is lost, and its nocturnal appearances may gradually lose those impressive features which have so long inspired awe and wonder in the hearts of mankind, and dwindle at last into something which the professional astronomer alone will be in reward in watching.

#### The Mercury Vapor Lamp and Its Effect on the Eye.

About a year ago we published a reference to a report of Prof. J. Norman Collins, of St. Louis, stating in effect that a German medical journal had described certain cases of alleged injury inflicted upon the eyes by rays of mercury vapor lamps. These cases referred to were supposed to have resulted from the use of mercury illuminating lamp, which is now so largely used in this country and which is constructed with a tube or container of glass, but from a special lamp used in medical sterilization, and in scientific apparatus, having a quartz container. The medical or sterilizing lamp, to be sure, uses mercury vapor, but its container being of quartz, it is transparent to those rays which may be injurious to the eyes, while glass is opaque to such rays and does not permit their passage. The quartz lamps referred to by Prof. Collins are intentionally made to emit germ-destroying rays. Dr. Charles V. Steinmetz, who has made a careful study of mercury vapor lamps used for illuminating purposes, stated in an article in the *Electrical World* and *Engineer* of February 21st, 1907, as follows:

"The rays are therefore in the known artificial illuminant which is perfectly harmless and thus especially suited for use where accurate work has to be done by artificial illumination, as in drawing rooms, offices, etc."

The same scientist in an article in the *Daily Union*, Rochester, N. Y., on January 17th, 1903, stated as follows:

"On all rays, being lighter and the white daylight the least harmful while the mercury arc light which is entirely devoid of red rays, is absolutely harmless, and the person can look steadily across the mercury arc of enormous brilliancy without being blinded by it."

In one of Dr. Steinmetz's books entitled "Radiation, Light, and Illumination" he makes the following statement:

"The harmful effect of working very much under artificial illumination is largely due to its energy effect, incident to a large amount of orange, red, and especially ultra red in the radiation of incandescent bodies used for illuminants and thus does not exist with 'cold light,' as the light of the mercury lamp."

#### The Current Supplement.

Prof. R. F. Ruten writes most interestingly in *Current Supplement* No. 1789 on the manufacture of automatic stamping machines and their use. A new type of automatic stamping machine is described and illustrated. Prof. Charles Edward Locke writes on the development of power systems. Prof. Otto N. Witts discusses on the fact that fugitive dust causes dust. Italian I. Smith presents some curious information on the wooden monuments of the Northwest Coast Indians. A biography of the famous Dmitri Ivanovitch Mendeleev is published. A method of instantaneous microphotography is described.

#### Official Meteorological Summary, New York, N. Y., March, 1910.

Atmospheric pressure: Highest, 30.51; lowest, 29.47; mean, 30.8. Temperature: Highest, 78; date, 29th and 30th; lowest, 34; date, 18th; mean of warmest day, 54.5; day, 55th; coldest of night, 24; mean of maximum for the month, 52.4; mean of minimum, 37.0; absolute mean, 44.7; normal, 57.1; daily excess compared with the mean of 40 years, 19.0. Warmest mean temperature of March, 48; in 1893, coldest mean, 39; in 1872. Absolute maximum and minimum of March for 40 years, 78 and 8. Average daily excess since January 1st, 35. Precipitation 0.86, greatest for 24 hours, 0.86; date, 18th; mean of month, 1.34. March for 40 years, 4.10. Deficiency of this month compared with normal, 3.24. Accumulated deficiency since January 1st, 1.08. Greatest precipitation, 7.80, in 1876; least, 0.86 in 1910. Wind: Prevailing direc-

tion, northwest; total movement, 1,583 miles; average hourly velocity, 10.7; maximum velocity, 44 miles per hour. Weather, clear days, 19; partly cloudy, 14; cloudy, 5, on which 0.61 or more of precipitation occurred. 4. Relative humidity, 63.4. Dewes fog, 2nd, 3rd, 5th, 6th, 8th.

#### The Highways.

At the hour of two in the morning of Sunday, January 18th, the completion of the Shoshone dam in Wyoming was announced. This is the highest dam in the world, being 238.4 feet from the base to the parapet. It is located in the park of the Shoshone River, in one of the wildest and most picturesque regions of northern Wyoming. The walls of the gorge are nearly perpendicular, and rise nearly 2,000 feet above the stream. At its base the dam is 100 feet across; on top it is 175 feet in length, and at the base the dam is 104 feet wide.

The completion of this dam creates an enormous reservoir, having a surface area of ten square miles and an average depth of seventy feet. The capacity of this irrigation basin in gallons is something like 148,588,512,000. The construction of this great dam was attended with difficulty from the beginning, owing to the fact that the rock on which it was to be built was so hard.

The dam is to control for all time the great floods of the Shoshone River and to provide an ample water supply for the irrigation of more than 100,000 acres of exceptionally fertile land on the valley below, a portion of which is now available for settlers under the terms of the reclamation act.

The contract for the Shoshone dam was let September 18th, 1905, to a Chicago firm for \$15,750. This firm, however, defaulted, and the work was completed by another contractor.

#### Rail-Carriage Car.

When streets are cleaned by sweepers, whose brushes push the dirt before them, the dirt is swept into the grooves of the street railroad rails and then compacted by the weight of the running cars. The rails, cleaned with dirt offer a greater resistance to the electric current, thereby causing a greater amount of power to be used for the propelling of the cars. The rails are constantly cleaned to avoid loss of power.

The Hanover Street Railway Company has built for this purpose a special rail-cleaning car. It is similar in construction to a regular trolley car, and has two 25-horse-power engines. The car is equipped with brushes on both sides of the car are steel brushes, which loosen the dirt from the rails. This dirt is automatically removed by a vacuum pump, and deposited in a box built into the rear of the car. The vacuum pump is operated by an electric motor attached to the dirt box. To avoid the raising of dust in dry weather, a sprinkler and two nozzles holding about 225 gallons of water each, are provided.

As soon as the bell is filled, an automatic alarm notifies the motorman, who shuts off the pump, raises the brushes, and takes the car to a place where it can be emptied and made ready for another trip.

This car can be run at any rate of speed allowable in street traffic up to 17½ miles per hour, and still will work with good results. It can be run by one man and the amount of power used at a speed of 10 miles per hour is only about 3,000 volts per mile. The car can clean daily an average of 45 miles of track, using nothing but water and dirt. It is capable of 132 gallons of water and taking up to one cubic yard of dirt per mile of track.

#### Death of Thomas H. Baxendale.

The founder of the box toe industry in this country, Mr. Thomas A. Baxendale, died at Brockton, Mass., on April 1st at the age of seventy. A native of England, Mr. Baxendale came to Brockton in 1867 as a peddler. The shoe industry was then in its infancy. He entered one of the large factories and invented the box toe which is now used in nine-tenths of the shoes that are worn. Later he was a successful shoe manufacturer and founded the firm of T. A. Baxendale & Company. He invented many machines for producing shoes, most of which are now in common use. He died a wealthy man.

#### Death of Thomas H. Jeffery.

Mr. Thomas H. Jeffery, who invented what is known as the clincher pneumatic tire, died on April 3rd, at Farmington, Conn. He was a farmer more than twenty years a partner of the firm of McCormick & Jeffery, makers of bicycles. English by birth, he came to this country at the age of eighteen, and settled in Chicago. He took an active interest not only in the development of the bicycle, but in the automobile as well.

#### Death of Paul Theodore Harvey.

Paul Theodore Harvey died January 11th, 1910, in Dresden, Me. He was a well-known German scientist and inventor. He is best known for an invention to which he applied compressed air for blowing persons of glass of any desired size.

## Correspondence.

## WATSON &amp; A. JOSE EVANS' MACHINE

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

Whoever will invest a machine to hull rice, will be as great a benefactor to the rice farmer and the consumer as Will Whitney in the invention of the cotton gin. The farmer will save 75 per cent. of his labor for his raw product, and generally has his crop in the mill for months before he gets it. The mills are huge structures because of the necessity for large storage, but the main part of the machine is the same in machinery as a flour mill. The main processes are two, the removal of the hull and the removal of the polish. The former is accomplished by grain sizers, but the grain passes under them and is not completely clear of the hull. The next process is accomplished by a cylinder of wire cloth containing a revolving core of chasquias with the wool on, which takes off the remaining hull and the outside of the grain as well. The native French of Louisiana prepares their rice by means of a wooden pestle, which removes the hulls and leaves the polish, the most nutritious part of the grain. Usually the mills have an arrangement for coating each grain with paraffin, but this is not even an improvement except in appearance.

Whoever will invent a small machine, say in size similar to a farmer's fan mill, that will remove the hull from the grain, will remove the rice crop from the enormous toll now paid the miller, and give a cheap and healthy food. Truly the mills have a substitute for the present rapidly ascending foodstuffs to which we have been accustomed. There are large investments in the milling of the crop, but it ought to be a paying investment with 75 per cent. profit, between the planter and the consumer on each 75 cents received by the farmer. C. W. CAMPBELL.

Johnson City, Wis.

## THE EFFECT OF REFRACTION ON THE TRIANGULATION OF MOUNTAIN SUMMITS

A REPLY TO MISS PECK'S STATEMENTS IN THE PRESS

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

Since the announcement by Mrs. F. Bullock Workman of the results of the recent scientific and carefully executed measurement of the two summits of Mount Huascarán by the professional engineers sent out to Peru by her from Paris, Miss A. Peck has favored the press with communications in which she has endeavored to bolster up her assertions not based on any measurement data as to the height of that mountain by attempting to discredit the figures obtained by triangulation. The most important of her statements of altitude known. To effect this the communications contain a quotation and two statements, one of the latter absurd and self-contradictory in its terms, so brought together as to tend to bring the mind of the reader and lead him to infer that in general the results of triangulation of a mountain summit by an expert engineer are likely to be vitiated to an extent of 4,000 feet by refraction.

The quotation from Mr. Mumm and the statement attributed to Dr. Collie, the one a publisher and the other a chemist by profession, neither of whom, so far as I know, has ever claimed to be an expert in altitude measurements, merely repeat in general terms what is well known to engineers that no method of determining the exact amount of refraction having been yet discovered, the present method of determining mountain altitudes obtained by triangulation may be somewhat changed, either higher or lower, should such method be discovered in the future. Such change would probably not be great, and it is probable that many cases would be very slight, varying from nothing to a few feet, for no coefficient of refraction that is likely to be used would greatly alter the results now obtained.

Between the recognition of the fact that figures obtained by triangulation may not now be absolutely, though they are essentially, accurate, and the ridiculous statement asserted by Miss Peck to have been made by a famous French physicist, a so-called "former member of the British Royal Engineers" that he triangulated the great peak K2 and obtained a height 4,000 feet greater than that now assigned to it by the Indian Survey, which immediately follows, it is evident that we have the public before us due to refraction, there is an impossible gap.

The possible discovery of an absolutely accurate method of determining refraction would affect chiefly the present altitudes assigned to certain very high Himalayan peaks, such as Mount Everest, which were triangulated from very distant points low down in the gullies plains, and to a less degree some other high peaks also measured from distant stations. At the discussion of a paper on mountain exploration read by me before the Royal Geographical Society in London in December, 1899, the subject of the use of the aneroid by Indian engineers, for many years employed in the survey of India engaged in Himalayan

surveying, speaking of the very highest mountain, said "We do not know exactly, and at present there is no means of determining, what the exact effect of refraction may be in these altitudes, and the result of variation when applied as corrections to these observed trigonometrical altitudes may be considerable." To show what he judges to be considerable may be added his further remark, "Mount Everest will probably prove to be some hundred feet or so higher than we at present reckon it."

Observe that Sir Thomas considers one hundred feet in 29,000 the present height assigned to Mount Everest a considerable change, the altitude of that peak which is the most extreme case of all on account of its great altitude, its distance from the measuring stations, and the large amount of moisture in the air above the foot, stoney plain of Nepal. He does not for a moment entertain the figure of 4,000 feet said to be suggested by the friend of the British Royal Regt. near it. Sir Thomas's estimate is a probable one in this case, in the more favorable case of lower summits measured from near stations the amount of correction would shade down nearly or quite to zero.

Now Miss Peck supposes an allowance similar to the friend of the Royal Engineers's 4,000 feet made to the ascertained height of Huascarán, and asserts, "It might easily happen that the mountain is one or two thousand feet higher than it has been found," which would bring it up well toward its true height, she has estimated it at. Such a supposition is not tenable. Even if the 4,000 foot statement regarding K2 were true, the conditions in this case are entirely different from those in which it is a ludicrous and a creditable edge of the principle of altitude-measurement. Sur positions have no place in this field. Observed facts are what count.

M. de Larnmet and his assistants who are expert engineers and know what they are about triangulated the two summits of Huascarán from four accurately measured stations at an altitude of 25,000 feet, in the immediate neighborhood of that mountain in perfectly clear weather. How was no immense distance, no haze in the air, no great height of the summits above the stations, as in the case of the great Himalayan peaks mentioned, to cause any appreciable change of error due to refraction. Refraction in this case, if not allowed for at all would be practically a negligible amount. His results derived from the observations, three being usually considered sufficient to insure accuracy, must be exact to within a very small figure. Prof. R. Schimper and M. Henri Viallet of Paris after a full and careful examination of the work of M. de Larnmet's observations and calculations have endorsed them as correct. The indorsement of engineers of such worldwide reputation as they have is a sufficient guarantee of the accuracy of the measurements. Miss Peck may therefore rest assured that this triangulation will be accepted by engineers and experts as accurate and definitely settling the question of the altitude of the two summits of Huascarán.

Miss Peck makes two other statements, the relation of which to the altitude of Huascarán is not apparent (1) That "improperly claimed" a world record with 23,244 feet, and (2) that Mr. Graham's ascent of Mount Kabru, about 24,000 feet, twenty years earlier, is now quite generally acknowledged." Mr. Graham on his return from the Eastern Himalayas claimed to have nearly ascended Mount Kabru as well as to have made a number of other high ascents. He gave an account of his experience, in London. His claims were very generally disbelieved at the time and afterward by mountaineers and scientists, and were especially disputed by the Indian Survey, the members of which were in a particularly advantageous position to judge of their truth. The grounds for discrediting his ascent of Mount Kabru were several, but the one which is well known to the Survey officers, has never, I think, been published as the Survey did not enter the life in print against Mr. Graham. Within two years I have had occasion to discuss the question of his ascent with a retired surveyor general of the Indian Survey, who was in Calcutta when Mr. Graham returned from his attempt on Kabru, and he expressed his disbelief in the statement.

Some time after the event Mr. Douglas Freshfield advocated Mr. Graham's claim bringing forward no new evidence beyond Mr. Graham's original account, but basing his opinion on certain considerations of probability, which though specious were not conclusive and did not convince the public. He stood nearly alone for years. Recently a few of his friends have expressed their concurrence in his opinion, and in the United States Mr. F. S. Balch and Miss Peck have echoed the cry, though neither of them can have any knowledge of the question that can make their opinion worth their concern. The matter at large has remained either neutral or disbelieving.

It is noteworthy that Mr. Graham had no statu quo, not even an aneroid, with him by which to determine the altitude he claimed to have reached, so that, as in Miss Peck's case his ideas as to his altitudes were based wholly on guesswork. It is also

significant, as an English journal recently stated, that after his account given in London, he never joined in the discussion that followed nor attempted by any further statement to defend his claim. Not long afterward he disappeared, and so far as I am aware has to learn, his whereabouts have since remained unknown.

Mr. Graham's account constitutes the only evidence available in the question. It is easy after reading this to choose to believe that his claim to have ascended Kabru is valid, he has a perfect right to do so, but such belief does not afford any proof of validity, nor does it warrant the person holding it as asserted by Mr. Graham's ascent. It is now quite generally acknowledged. The only verdict that can be reached, as the matter stands is that of unproven.

In stating the above I wish it distinctly understood that I am not expressing my own opinion as to Mr. Graham's claim. This I have nowhere done either in letters or in writing although such expression has been ascribed to me by others.

With regard to Miss Peck's repeated assertion that I "improperly claimed" a world record with 23,244 feet, my position may be stated as follows. Although, as a matter of fact, this altitude attained by me in 1897 was and remained for several years the highest measured altitude reached on an ascent, and although I had endeavored to publish it to the world as a record, with two exceptions, I have never claimed it as such either in public or in print nor even in the volume "See Bound Heights of the Mounts," by Mrs. Bullock Workman and myself, in which I have described my ascent to that altitude. I have written a narrative of it in one of the issues of "Who's Who." The other was in connection with a paper on that ascent read before the Alpine Club in London in May, 1905, when I said:

"The word record" in the title of this paper is used as referring to the highest substantiated ascent yet made in mountaineering. The contention that Mr. Graham reached an altitude of 29,000 feet has on various grounds, whether rightly or wrongly been so strongly disputed that it must be regarded as far from proved, and therefore the altitude mentioned cannot properly claim a place among those acknowledged to have been made."

In this year 1910, so far as Mr. Graham's claim is concerned I see no reason to alter a word of that statement.

In view of the above I do not think it would be courteous in me to deprive Miss Peck of the distinction of "improperly claiming" a world record. She herself has enjoyed a monopoly for the last two years. During that time her chief appeal to the interest of the public has been not by scientific observation, but by sensational statements. Miss Peck's constant repetition in the press without the authority of any measurement proof of claims to the attainment of an altitude variously stated at from 25,000 to 29,000 feet, which finally crystallized into 23,244 feet, may be regarded as certain that Huascarán is above 23,000 feet.

If, as seems probable the height is 24,000 feet I have the honor of his making the world's record for men as well as women.

Mrs. Bullock Workman's engineers have now stripped her claim of all its and prohibitions and brought it definitely down to 23,142 feet, the altitude of the lower summit of Huascarán, a claim to have ascended.

WILLIAM H. VYSS WORKMAN

Algiers

## Effect of Rainfall on the Cotton Industry.

The amount of rainfall and the development of the cotton industry in any region are intimately connected. The first proof of this rather surprising assertion is found in the fact that the cotton plant is so devoted to the growth of the air of cotton spinning rooms a proper and sufficient degree of humidity. But a deficiency of natural humidity cannot be perfectly remedied by artificial means, and it is a fact well known to all cotton spinners that the product of the spindles is considerably increased by the constant presence of a large amount of moisture in the air. The moist atmosphere of Normandy has made that region the chief seat of the cotton industry in France, and for a similar reason Manchester has become the center of the English cotton manufacturers. In addition to a moist atmosphere the cotton industry requires abundance of water in its visible form. Cotton mills are always located on or near streams and are provided with continuous water supply.

Hence the great diminution in the rainfall of the Manchester district which has taken place within the last half century is a valid cause for alarm. Heshaw has collected the records of rainfall made between 1860 and 1888. He finds that the mean annual rainfall was 38 inches between 1860 and 1888, but only 27 1/2 inches between 1886 and 1888. The observed shifting of one of the barometers on the self stream is suggested as a possible cause of this great change, a small which threatens the industrial prosperity of Manchester and the surrounding district.—Comins

## THE DISINFECTING OF RAILWAY CARS.

The running of a railroad in Germany is evidently accompanied with unpleasantness, if one may judge from the accompanying photographs. The Potsdam shops, which are responsible for the proper maintenance of rolling stock, have been confronted with the difficult task of disinfecting the cars. It seems that the coaches which return from Russia are literally awash with vermin. The thoroughness, there was still the possibility that living disease germs might lurk in the walls and hangings. It was therefore, the practice for some years ago to allow all the upholstered curtains etc. and to clean everything thoroughly. Naturally, the expense involved was heavy and the cars were with held from service for a considerable time. Moreover, there was also the danger of infecting the shops and other cars.

The problem seems to have been successfully solved by Julius Platch who applied to the rail way car a principle of disinfection which has been successfully employed on vessels. His disinfecting apparatus consists of an iron cylinder built up of cast iron, annular sections of 16 feet internal diameter. The inside length is about 72 feet. The cylinder is so stoutly constructed that it can easily support without deformation a 35-ton car.

During disinfection the air within the cylinder is considerably rarified by a pump, and as a result, the outer air exerts a pressure of about 1,800 tons on the disinfecting cylinder. Hence the apparatus is heated during disinfection. Hence the cylinder is mounted upon rollers, so that the apparatus can yield to an extent of about three-quarters of an inch in length, which is the amount of expansion.

Before it is run into the cylinder, all the windows and transoms of the car are opened. By means of a crane a two-ton closure is brought against the open end of the cylinder. A special order is employed to make the closure hermetic. Huge bolts hold the closure, gasket, and cylinder together. Steam is blown into the interior of the cylinder. Two hundred fifty steam pipes line the interior of the cylinder, all receiving their supply from the main pipe. The total length of all these pipes is about 1½ miles. In order to test the air within the cylinder quickly and uniformly, two blowers are set in motion, so that all the air is brought in contact with the heating tubes. Even during the cold of winter the temperature within the cylinder can be raised to 140 deg. F. in from one to two hours. In order to heat an entire coach to this temperature, about five hours is required. After the car has reached the proper temperature, the air is pumped out of the cylinder until a vacuum of 76 to 74 centimeters of mercury under the normal pressure is obtained. At this atmospheric pressure water will boil at 104 deg. F. Hence all moisture is evaporated from the car without injuring the parts by the excess steam heat. In no other way is it possible to kill vermin effectually. The upholstery, curtains, hangings etc., are not in the least injured.

For very special purposes the cars may be disinfected with formaldehyde gas. At the very first attempt a car was thoroughly purged of vermin. To make assurance doubly sure, and to test the efficacy of this formaldehyde disinfecting method a glass vessel full of the living insect had been purchased from a professional vermin-exterminator in Berlin. This vessel was placed in the car and covered with cotton and linen. The insects were all killed.

The apparatus has also been employed to dry out cars as well as cars pervaded with the unpleasant odor of cooking. After twenty-four hours they were quite ready for service again. In this case no formalin was used.

Lithograph by Burns.—40 parts sugar lime, 10 parts glycerine, 90 parts carbolic acid, 3 parts salol.

## CONCRETE IRRIGATION IN THE YAKIMA WATER-REED—THE TITON CANYON CANAL.

BY MR. ARTHUR WATSON.

The region adjacent to the Yakima River in southern Washington is the location of a group of irrigation projects which are notable for the engineering features. The topography of the country reveals a number of areas of arid land, separated by hill ranges which prevent water being distributed from a single source of supply. The engineers of the Reclamation Service have made an investigation which extended from the lower portion of the Yakima River to its head waters in the foot hills of the Cascade, and

be impossible to build a tunnel or open canal upon it. Consequently, several miles of the conduit were supported upon pilings or arms of reinforced concrete anchored into the rock and extending outward from the canyon side. The Tilton project 4 feet in diameter, with a flow of 100,000 gallons of water, is located in the vicinity of North Yakima, Wash.

As the water is conveyed along the precipitous side hill of the Tilton canyon, the conduit is supported by concrete pillars. The open canal sections are of semicircular form, 8 feet 3½ inches in diameter, with concrete shaft 4 inches thick, while the tunnel sections are of circular form, 8 feet 3½ inches in diameter, with concrete shaft 4 inches thick. This canal and tunnel lining are made up in 3-foot lengths, manufactured on the spot along the river bank, where concrete ingredients are readily obtainable, and lifted to the canal line by cable hoists operated by electric power. These hoists are used successively at points about two miles apart, and the concrete shapes are introduced along the canal between hoists on railroad tracks laid in the bed of this excavated route.

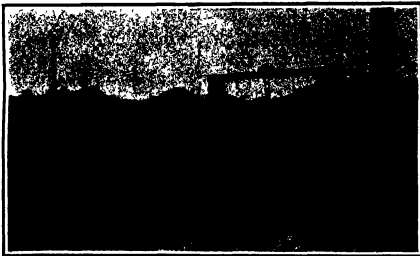
This plan was adopted for the reason that beds of sand suitable for concrete were found in the bottom of the river. In fact, the Tilton valley was made the site of a novel concrete works. The question as to how to transport them to the work was answered by the use of electrical power. A series of transverse were built at convenient points up the side of the canyon operated by cable

hoists. These hoists in turn were served by a series of electric motors securing current from a power station constructed for the purpose. The concrete as fast as mixed was molded to the proper dimensions in portable molds mounted on wheels, so that they could be drawn from the power station to the work. After had taken place, the forms were set upon trucks having sides of steel framework. These trucks were mounted on the transverse, and the material hauled to the top ready to be lowered into the canyon.

On the Tilton project 10,000 feet of tunnel were necessary, divided into two sections of 3,000 feet each and one of 4,000 feet. In excavating these much of the formation was found to be too hard to be removed by requiring special machinery to remove it. In making the tunnel excavation a circular bore 7½ feet in diameter was driven by machine drills. Tilton River has a fall of from 160 to 180 feet per mile, and advantage was taken of this to develop the power required for operating drills and other machinery and for lighting purposes. A power canal 2,500 feet long, of 180 second feet maximum capacity and 34 feet effective head, has been completed, which supplies water for operating a Franklin air compressor capable of compressing 1,250 cubic feet of free air per minute to a pressure of 100 pounds per inch, a Westinghouse generator of 120 kilowatts capacity, and a 100-horsepower turbine engine.

About 500 horsepower is developed, ample to operate the six electric drills, six air drills, shop machinery, pumps, hoists, etc., and to light all the camp buildings. The turbine is regulated by a governor, and the power canal is provided with an ample automatic overflow, just below the power house. An electric transmission line, carrying 2,500 volts, has been constructed to the upper portal of Trail Creek tunnel, a distance of seven miles. Electric drills are being operated at the two portals of Trail Creek tunnel, and at the upper portal of Tilton tunnel. At the lower portal of Tilton tunnel, and at both portals of North Fork tunnel, air drills have been installed.

Another difficulty in the way of building the Tilton conduit was the occurrence of a number of ravines carrying small streams. A part of these were diverted into concrete flumes, while other conduits for them were made from rubble masonry. These culverts are of the arched type and vary in width from two to eight feet. The size of the larger ones being necessary in order to allow for the flood streams during the rains. The total expense of completing the

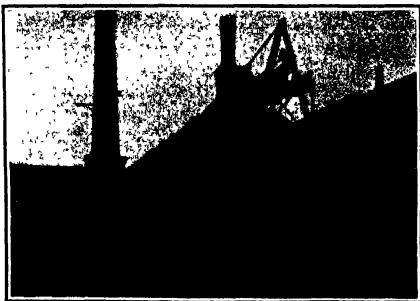


The huge cylinder in which German railway cars are disinfected by steam and formaldehyde at Potsdam after their return from a trip to Russia.

have planned five reservoirs and distributing systems, which will have a capacity to irrigate no less than 350,000 acres, making this group of projects one of the most important in the West. The various works are the Tilton, Sunnyside, Wapato, Kettling, and Benton. They have a water supply through the rivers from four lakes and a submerged "meadow" having a total area of 574 square miles.

While the lower section of the Yakima River is used in part for what is known as the Sunnyside project, most of the service is performed by the Tilton, the Naches, and the Cowlitz streams—small rivers which are feeders of the Yakima.

Of the projects, the Tilton is the most interesting from a scientific standpoint, owing to the difficulties along the route, the various applications of power, and the fact that without the use of concrete the project



Sealing the cylinder with a two-ton grouted closure before exhausting the air and turning on the steam.

## THE DISINFECTING OF RAILWAY CARS.

would have been impossible. The stream flows through a deep canyon with very steep sides, the height of the bluff ranging in places as high as 400 feet from the bed of the river to the level of the canal. The water of the Tilton is diverted by means of a concrete dam thrown across the stream. Although but three feet high and 300 feet long, the reservoir thus made is sufficient to fill a main canal 15 miles long and lateral canals having a total of 51 miles. In conveying the water from the dam to the point of distribution, the only practical route which could be located was largely along the side of the canyon near the top, the rim being of such formation that it would

Tieton project is very small considering the work which had to be performed and the acreage which will be served by the water, a tract which will aggregate about 30,000 acres in all. In the construction work it was necessary to have a telephone line 22 miles in length, wagon roads along the route of the canal, and tunnels as well as temporary settlements for the workmen in the valley and on the rim of the

**Increased Cost of Army Rations.**  
The numerous published accounts of high prices of food and the hardships which have been inflicted upon the workmen, and also the fact that hog meat has become so high in price that its use has been almost prohibitive, has resulted in a complaint from our Uncle Sam, to the effect that his army would have to substitute corned beef or corned-beef hash for bacon

tioned before the price of bacon has so increased as to make the change desirable.

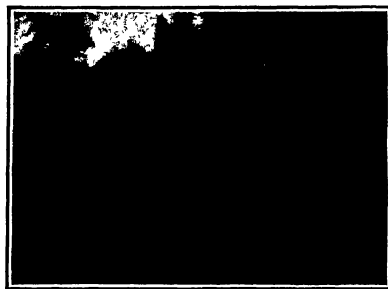
The garrison ration is steadily increasing in price because of the general rise in the cost of food products. When the estimates for army subsistence were made last May for the next fiscal year, it was assumed that a ration would cost \$2.97 cents. By January of this year the cost had increased to 22 cents, making



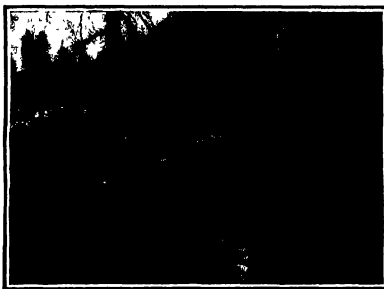
The canal consists alternately of open semicircular concrete conduits and circular tunnel.



Building the open section of the Tieton conduit. Note the wooden forms for the concrete.



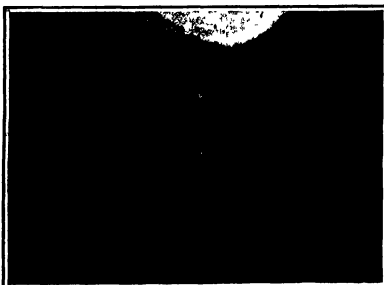
One of the portable molds used in forming the concrete linings of the conduit.



The molding yard, showing the concrete lining sections ready for delivery at the canal.



The 6-inch concrete lining was built in sections in the valley and lifted to place on the side of the canyon.



Side-hill excavation for the Tieton canyon canal.

# GOVERNMENT IRRIGATION IN THE YAKIMA WATERBED.—THE TIETON CANYON CANAL.

canyon. The land, however, is especially suited to the raising of forage, fruit, and hops and is located on three important railroad lines having connections with the principal cities of Washington.

**Ornament for Darns.**—Iodineform, 80 parts; extract of camellia, 40 parts; carbolic acid, 1 part; rose unguent, 100 parts.

To those of us who served in the Spanish war, and had the canned or corned beef served us as a part of the regular ration, the news will not come as a surprise, but the man who reads this will undoubtedly think of the good beef he gets at home and wonder why complaints should be made.

One particular reason why the army will now use corned beef is from the point of economy, for as men

it necessary for the War Department to submit a deficiency estimate to Congress. If the present rate of increase keeps up, the cost will be nearly 25 cents by the end of the next fiscal year. When it is considered that the army annually consumes several millions of rations, it will be seen that an advance of even a fraction of a cent in a single ration means a big advance in the aggregate for a year.

### HOW GAMBLERS CHEAT BY MECHANICAL DEVICES

Games of chance have always had a fascination for all classes of individuals, at all ages, and the professional "sharp" has made a vast fortune (which, in some persons is devoted into a rilling passion) a means for earning an easy livelihood (at the expense of the numerous flats) who visit the race course or other places where gambling is looked upon as a sport or a few light-hearted pastimes.

The ingenious mechanical devices which have been employed for this purpose are really astonishing. Such money-raising contrivances have been devised, of course, out of date through one ingenious sharp invented a table the top of which was sheet steel under a very thin cloth covering. By means of an electro-magnet concealed within the table, its top could be converted into a powerful magnet, and the dice (which were prepared by having one side of metal while the rest were ivory) could be attracted to the table when the current was on or would fall in any hap-hazard position when the current was shut off. They, however, are generally suspected and hardly anyone would venture to stake money upon the fall of the dice any more than he would upon three card monte.

Cards are the most fertile field for the gambler's revenue. Winning at cards depends largely upon the possession of certain high cards or the "knees" which win the tricks and to gain possession of these cards is the gambler's object. For assuring this various devices have been employed called "holdouts" mechanical contrivances concealed in the sleeve which by a very slight pressure or movement in one direction, will instantly shoot out the required card into the gambler's hand and recede again into the sleeve. One of the most ingenious and perfect of these was invented by a gambler named Keupinger, and the device has ever since been known as the "Keupinger holdout." The apparatus was worked by the knee, so that no motion of the arm or body was necessary. A slight separation of the knees was all that was required to shoot the card into the gambler's hand. The knees were thereupon released and the "holdout" receded like a flash into the gambler's sleeve.

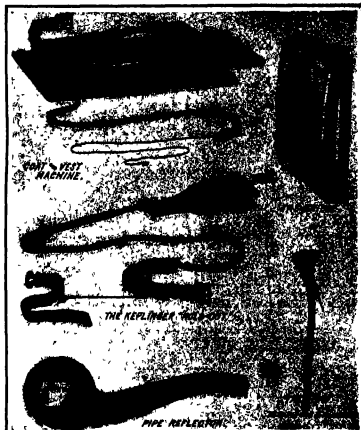
Another variety of "holdout" is that concealed in the waistcoat, and here the hand is held close to the body with the cards outspread while the thread is pulled, and in that manner a card is shot into the hand under cover of the remaining cards. This however, is a dangerous procedure which is rarely employed. A small but ingenious species of "holdout" is that known as "the bag." The small sharp point seen in the illustration is stuck into the wood of the under side of the table in such a manner that the flat bar runs along parallel to and just touching the wood of the table beneath. One or more cards are now inserted into the clip thus formed, and may be withdrawn by the fingers in the act of drawing cards on the table toward the body.

A daring yet simple variety of "holdout" is attached to the sleeve. It is buckled around the shirt sleeve under the coat and two small pointed hooks facing outward press against the coat sleeve. These hooks may be separated or brought nearer together by pressing upon a small rubber tube. If now a card be placed against the coat sleeve, on the outside, and the clips separated and then released, they will clamp the edges of the card through the cloth of the coat, and it will be retained there by the pressure of the spring in the "holdout." So long as the arm is held downward, the card is invariable, but the card may be obtained possession of by the fingers of the other hand when resting against the sleeve of the arm to which the "holdout" is attached.

A still simpler device is to have a small pocket cut in the coat sleeve. The "pocket" is merely a slit about three inches long, into which the required card is inserted. The fingers grasp the card and withdraw it with the others at the required moment. Another variety of "holdout" is known as

the "ring holdout." A ring is worn on one of the fingers, to the inside of which is attached, as part of the ring, a small wire clip or spring, flesh colored. The card is inserted under this spring, and in that manner is retained within the palm of the hand by the pressure. Experts in sleight-of-hand would not require a clip of this character, being enabled to palm the card without any mechanical aid.

Besides such devices as those just mentioned, the



THE ELABORATE OUTFIT OF THE GAMBLER.

gambler depends for his success partly upon his dexterity in handling the cards during the actual progress of the game. Of course marked cards are frequently employed for this purpose, but the expert gambler will succeed in marking the cards with his thumb nail during the course of the play, so that, at the end of a few hands he knows practically every card in the pack from the slight indications upon its back. Sometimes, also, cards are bent more or less slightly to insure their recognition—either individual cards or a number of cards together. If half a pack is bent in this manner this is called "the bridge." Each card in this section then has a slight curve, as shown in the illustration.



SOME GAMBLERS' TRICKS WITH CARDS.

A gambler may even deal to himself or to any person forming the circle a particular card which is known to him. This card is at the bottom of the pack, and the "sharp" deals off the cards from the top of the pack continuously until he reaches the person into whose hand he desires to place the card next to him, when, by a rapid movement, he withdraws it, not the top but the bottom card with his fingers instead of his thumb. This trick, when

rapidly and well executed, is practically undetectable.

Card "sharps" also employ other devices for gaining knowledge of the cards dealt to every member in the circle. In order to obtain this knowledge, a small mirror is employed. Sometimes this mirror is attached to a needle point, and fixed to the under side of the table nearest the dealer. If, now, in dealing, each card be passed over the mirror in turn, the gambler will be enabled to tell the position of each card dealt, and to follow the cards before a single play can be made. A mirror of this character is a dangerous device, and it is easily detected. For this reason, very ingenious schemes have been employed. A small mirror is inserted into the bowl of a pipe, laid carelessly on the table, the bowl being turned slightly upward and toward the dealer. Now, in dealing the cards, they are passed each in turn over the bowl of the pipe, and in this manner the magnifying glass it contains conveys to the "sharp" all the required knowledge as to the cards contained in each player's hand. Occasionally "sharps" employ a mirror ring for this purpose, a large silver ring being used which during the course of play, is swung around so that the silver faces the palm instead of the back of the hand. The silver then swings open on a pivot hinge and discloses a tiny magnifying mirror beneath. By the aid of this mirror, the majority of cards can be detected as dealt. At least some court cards can be distinguished from cards of lower value, which is the chief thing to be covered.

There are a number of other ingenious devices employed by professional sharps, but the above will at least give the reader an idea of the extent to which this practice has been carried, of the remarkable ingenuity displayed by manufacturers of such devices, and of the dexterity and daring of the gamblers themselves in employing them.

### Macroscopic Examination of Metals.

The macroscopic examination of metals consists in examining with the naked eye the surface of the metal, which has been polished and chemically treated in such a manner as to bring out its constitution and its impurities. In macroscopic examination the particular objects of study are the character and chemical properties of the alloy, while macroscopy concerns itself with the physical properties. The principle of the methods used is as old as the art method of examining, in which an acid mixture was employed which blackened in different degrees the strips of iron and steel which had been welded together in the formation of a weld.

The operations of macroscopy are essentially two, first, the preparation of the polished surface, which must be absolutely free from grease, secondly, the chemical treatment, which is preferably effected with dilute sulphuric acid, in which the entire piece of metal is immersed for several hours, or with an aqueous solution of iodine and potassium iodide. The indications furnished by the examination of the surface thus treated are useful in determining the quality of steel and detecting the presence of slag and of blowholes. When a bar of metal is cast there is frequently produced near the surface a blowhole which is filled with the more fusible impurities. Usually this pocket extends through one-third of the thickness of the bar. Macroscopic methods show whether the blowholes have been obliterated either by pressure or by the action of the upper part of the bar, and they are also capable of detecting in forged pieces traces of these blowholes which have been left after the forging.

The statistics of the American Railway Association show that the net surplus of freight cars on the railways of the country on February 28th was 13,690, as against 24,975 on February 28th, 1914; and 24,416 on February 28th, 1915. The increased demand for box cars and flat cars has been particularly felt in the past few months.

### ON THE TREES OF THE SOUTHWEST

The fir trees of the Pacific Northwest occasionally attain such proportions, especially in the territory near Puget Sound, that the stumps after the trees have been cut down are employed for novel purposes. In some portions of Washington one can see these huge stumps, which have been hollowed out and actually made into temporary homes for settlers. To make a stump house, it is first necessary to remove the material from the interior, leaving enough to form walls of suitable thickness. Then a roof of boards or shingles is put over the top of the stump, holes are cut for windows and doors, and the dwelling is practically ready for occupation. A number of these stumps have been used by settlers on what are called logged-off lands, until they have been enabled to construct larger and more convenient dwellings. After the stump home has been vacated, it is turned into a stable for the horses, or sometimes into an inclosure for chickens or hogs.

Next to the big tree of California, or sequoia as it is termed by the scientists, the fir as found in Washington and Oregon has the largest diameter of any tree in America, and probably in the world. Some have been cut down which actually measured 15 feet in diameter at the point where the incision was made. As they decay very rapidly after the timber has been removed, usually the interior can be hollowed out with little difficulty. Sometimes they are used for dancing platforms, as is shown in the accompanying illustration, some being large enough to accommodate four couples. As another custom is to turn the big stumps into playgrounds for the children, who reach the top by means of a rope nailed against the side or by ladders, and a pretty sight which a traveler often sees in the northwest is one of the big stumps turned into a flower bed and covered with the trailing vines.

### How to Repair and Clean Type-sets

#### By LEON A. FARRINGTON

As every user of a typesetter knows, the platen or roll is the part of the machine that wears out first. The constant hammering of the type against the surface of the platen soon makes indentations in it, which in a short time amount to such a degree of roughness that it is impossible to produce good, clean work.

A compound has recently been discovered that will restore the platen to its original smooth condition no matter how badly it is worn or how long it has been in use.

The formula and method of using the compound are as follows: The ideal material for use in repairing platens would be hard rubber, but in the process of vulcanizing, the rubber becomes insoluble to a great degree in the solvents generally used for making rubber solutions.

As a substitute for hard rubber celluloid is recommended. The hard variety should be used, which is sold under the name of Initiation Ivory. This is soluble in acetone, amyl acetate, and various other solvents. One of the best solvents is a mixture of eight ounces of acetone and one ounce of amyl acetate.

In the absence of anything else in the way of celluloid, any ordinary article made of this substance, as a comb, may be used. There is a variety of celluloid used in the manufacture of combs which is quite satisfactory for this purpose. The color also is good where this variety can be obtained.

In using celluloid on platens it is advisable to use something with it that will give it hardness, such as finely powdered silica, infusorial earth, emery, or other similar substance. About one ounce of powdered emery to each eight ounces of compound is a fair proportion. Powdered emery alone works well for the purpose.

The celluloid solution should be made as thick as a very heavy syrup or glue. In fact, as thick as may be spread with a brush. The heavier it is when spread, the sooner it will dry. If a light colored celluloid is used, it is advisable to add some coloring material, such as lamp black, to give it the desired color.

grayscale color. Remove the platen from the machine. The work may be done with the platen in the machine, but great care must be taken to protect the working parts from the dust formed when smoothing up. It also takes less time to do the work when the platen is removed.

Wash the platen with gasoline to remove all grease and dirt, and rub it with a piece of fine emery paper, to give it a new, clean surface. With a brush, paint the mixture carefully over the platen, giving it a good thick coat.

Lay the platen aside for six hours or longer for the composition to harden. Then with a piece of fine emery cloth smooth it down, taking care not to cut quite to the original surface of the platen. This is the delicate part of the work, and upon the care used in doing it depends the quality of the job.

Acetone and amyl acetate can be obtained at any drug store. It usually requires from two to five hours for the celluloid to dissolve. Breaking it up into small pieces hastens solution. The solution should be prepared in a wide-mouthed bottle that can be securely

stoppered. In the formula, except that should a quicker drying mixture be desired the quantity of paraffin oil may be reduced and the kerosene increased. In all cases the lightest grade of paraffin oil should be used and not the heavier lubricating grade. The paraffin oil is used a water white fluid is produced, if dark paraffin oil is employed the liquid has a light amber color. Oil of citronell or oil of sassafras may be substituted for the cedar oil which has no action on water and is used simply to disguise the composition of the compound. To use the compound fill a tub of sufficient size with it. Place the machine in it and allow it to remain in the solution for about an hour by lifting it up and down and grease will be washed off. Then remove it and dry it with a soft cloth brush the parts not accessible with the cloth. About two gallons of the mixture are required in the average case. The compound may be used as long as any of it is left, as the dirt settles to the bottom of the tub and the clean portion may be drawn off. It is necessary to keep it covered tightly when it is not in use to prevent evaporation of the benzol. A fair preparation may be made by using one-half the quantity of paraffin oil mentioned in the formula, an equal quantity of kerosene and from one and one-half to two times as much gasoline.

### The Transformation of Sea Water

#### Into Fresh Water

The belief was prevalent among the savants of the 17th and 18th centuries that a hermetically sealed earthen vessel dipped into the sea would fill itself with fresh water. At the present day it is difficult to say on what this belief was grounded. It surely could not have been cloaked by experiment. In a similar sense Mariotte, the founder of osmometry, made in the year 1725 an experiment which offered the filtration of sea water through a system of fifteen pipes filled with washed garden earth or sand and so placed as to let the water fall as if in a cascade. It is stated that the plates disclosed a definite diminution of the presence of salt. Similar assertions are everywhere current at our season.

A scientific test of the endeavor to free salt from water was recently made by the French investigator Thoulet. His report which appears in the minutes of the Académie des Sciences of Paris states that the presence of salt can be reduced by filtration forty centimeters of the length of a glass tube which was one meter long and was placed in a perpendicular position. The tube was filled with sea water. portions of the filtrate were examined at intervals of the experiment to ascertain its density and chemical composition. The result was that in the initial stage of the experiment density as well as saline content was found to be moderately reduced very soon thereafter both returned to their original value. The early degrees of value is explained by the mechanical attrition which very chemically inert body exercises on the surface of an adsorbent substance in solution as soon as the body comes in contact with the solution. In nature too much falls to effect the separation of salt.

By this simple experiment it became known that relatively fresh water may be found on very low and barren coral reefs in the Pacific Ocean by digging to a certain depth in the coral sand. It is not however, as water freed from salt through the layers of sand but is simply rain water that is retained by a sandy stratum and by it protected from admixture with the sea water. Similar phenomena are known in the European coasts. They may be considered the key to the popular belief now contradicted, that sea water can be sweetened by filtration through sand.

According to the Electric Railway Journal, a novel type of electric locomotive has recently been built for a rail haulage near Bremen. The locomotive runs on a quay which has to be kept clear for the passage of drays and for other purposes. To secure the necessary weight for adhesion it is desired to build the locomotive in the form of two 17's with a connecting girder. The current is taken from overhead wires.



A BIG STUMP IN WASHINGTON, BIG ENOUGH FOR A DANCING PLATFORM



STUMP OF A FIR TREE IN WASHINGTON WHICH SERVES AS A SEATING FOR A FAMILY OF FIVE

cocked. It should be shaken often during the process as this will prevent the celluloid from forming in lumps. The bottle should be kept tightly corked and away from fire, for it is highly inflammable. Should the mixture become too thick with a little more of the solvent, if it is not thick enough, add more celluloid.

A cheap and simple cleaning compound for type writers is composed of the following ingredients:

Paraffin oil	1 pint
Benzol	5 ounces
Cresol	1 drachm
Kerosene	4 ounces

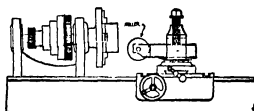
Mix thoroughly

This compound was for years a secret confined to one or two of the large companies that rebuild type writers. The machine is immersed in the compound which quickly and thoroughly dissolves and removes all dirt, gum, grease, etc. It does not injure the metal, but on the contrary improves its appearance making it as bright as when new. In making up any definite quantity of this compound retain the propor-



A TOOL FOR CENTERING WORK IN A LATHE

The accompanying drawing shows a handy tool for centering work in a lathe chuck. When a job is to be turned off it requires a little time to get it to run



SIMPLE METHOD OF CENTERING WORK IN A LATHE.

true. The drawing shows how the work can be expedited by the use of a simple tool. The tool is made of tool steel, the roller is hardened. When a job is placed in the chuck to be faced off and the face of the work does not run parallel with the face of the chuck the roller tool is secured in the tool post, and the lathe carriage is then run up to the roller. The roller takes the face of the job. As the work wobbles in the chuck the high position will be struck by the roller and forced true with the face of the lathe. After the work has been trued it is then ready for machining.

**REPAIRING A LEAK IN A STEAM OR WATER PIPE.**  
A hole which occasionally causes a leak in a steam or water pipe, after the pipe has been put up and perhaps been in use for a considerable time it can be repaired with an ordinary carriage clip and yoke



REPAIRING A LEAK IN A STEAM OR WATER PIPE.

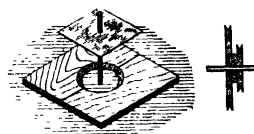
and bit of sheet rubber packing, although a piece of an old rubber shoe would last for years.

You can readily see the application by referring to the sketch. The writer stopped two leaks in steam pipes fifteen years ago by this method. The pipes have been in service ever since and have not leaked. They were both in rather inaccessible places, where it would have been difficult to renew the pipe. At the same time being in out-of-the-way places the appearance of the patch did not matter.

#### GROOVED PULLEYS FOR EXPERIMENTAL WORK

Small grooved pulleys or sheaves can of course be turned on the lathe, but a substitute for the lathe which is some ways quicker and cheaper, will be found very advantageous. The description of such a method follows.

In a piece of wood of the thickness desired for the pulley bore a hole of a diameter equal to that of the pulley at the bottom of the V-groove. With a half round rasp or large drill counterbore this hole on both sides. Split—do not saw—the board in two down the



MOLD FOR CASTING PULLEYS.

middle of the hole, then nail or clamp it tightly to a smooth board, the two halves being pressed firmly together. Find the center of the hole with a compass and drive in a headless nail taking care to get it vertical, to serve as a "core" for the bearing. Have a piece of cardboard considerably larger than the pulley, with a hole in the center the size of the nail. Push the nail under into the mold, and quickly

slip the cardboard over the nail and down upon the mold. This will force out superfluous metal and make the upper side of the pulley smooth. When cool, unclamp the mold and pull apart, where split. A knife or rasp will then do all the finishing necessary. Two or more pulleys can be cast together by placing the molds one upon the other, with their centers common. The figure shows such a combination. A hub may be made in a similar way. If a stronger bearing is wanted, as for an idler, wrap a strip of brass around the nail and let it become soldered to the metal.

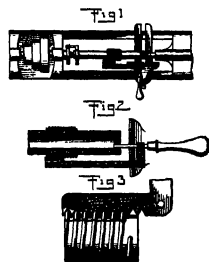
Along similar lines a corbel may be cast, but great care is necessary in cutting the teeth in the wooden mold. A large number of pulleys can be turned on one mold, and for duplication work this method will be found quicker than the lathe.

#### HOW TO CUT THREADS WITHOUT A SCREW-CUTTING LATHE OR THREAD-DRIVING TOOL

BY JOHN HANCOCK

The ordinary way to cut a thread by hand is to use a thread-cutting tool with the number of teeth per inch wanted. The difficulty in chasing a thread is in the starting. It takes a great deal of practice, and even then a "drunken" thread may be the result. The accompanying illustrations show how this can be done in a very simple way and yet give an absolutely true thread.

If a number of screws are to be cut the best way to proceed is as follows. Take a thin piece of tubing that will just fit over the bar or bolt to be threaded. In one end drill a small hole, into which fasten the end of a spring brass wire, preferably by soldering. Then wind the wire around the tube half a dozen or more turns. Now take a thread gage. Select the number of threads per inch wanted and place it lengthwise of the tube, bringing one turn of wire in each



SCREW-CUTTING ATTACHMENT FOR LATHE.

notch, after which pull the free end of the wire and keep it tight. Solder the coils to the tube, using the corner of the soldering iron. Then move the gage one-third of a turn around the tube and repeat the soldering and finally move the gage again an equal distance and solder.

It will now be seen that there is a perfect thread or spiral around the tube, which we will call the master thread. This master thread must be slipped on the bar or bolt to be threaded so that it will not turn, allowing enough room at the end for the threads to be cut. The cutting tool consists of an ordinary hand lathe, with only one point. Procure a small piece of wood, long enough to reach over the master thread and to the end of the bolt. Into this piece of wood drill a hole just large enough for the cutting tool to slip through and fit snugly.

In operation the cutting tool is held in the right hand, in the usual way. Then with the left thumb press the piece of wood against the master screw and start up the lathe. The master screw will feed the cutting tool the right pitch. As soon as a good start is obtained the tool will feed itself without the aid of the master screw.

When the thread is finished the master screw may be removed and slipped over another bolt to be threaded. The spiral may be wound right or left, according to the direction wanted. Any number of threads may thus be formed. That is to say if a triple or quadruple thread is wanted, it is only necessary to wind three or four wires around the master thread and proceed as before described. This arrangement is also very handy in starting a thread when the ordinary chaser is used, as it will always insure a straight thread. It is not necessary to hold or mark the wooden block, as it readily takes the impression of the thread from the master screw.

Fig. 1 illustrates a plan view of an ordinary lathe, ready to cut a thread. Fig. 2 shows how internal threads may be cut and Fig. 3 shows the master thread.

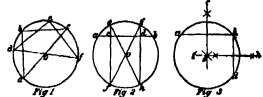
#### SEVERAL METHODS OF FINDING THE CENTER OF A CIRCLE.

BY ADOLPH MUESENER

Very often it is necessary in the drawing room or shop to find the center of a circle, a disk or a piece of slating, etc., when the diameter is not given. Below are three ways in which this can be done.

The first, Fig. 1, is the method usually used. It consists of two right triangles drawn so that their angles are in the circumference of the circle as  $a b c$  and  $d e f$ . The point where their hypotenuses intersect is the center of the circle.

The second method is shown in Fig. 2. Draw any chord as  $a b$  and take two points on it as  $c$  and  $d$  equidistant from the ends, at these two points erect perpendiculars to  $a b$  cutting the circle at  $e$  and  $f$ . Then



THREE WAYS OF FINDING THE CENTER OF A CIRCLE.

draw  $c h$  and  $f g$ , and the point where they intersect will be the center of the circle.

Fig. 3 is similar to Fig. 2. Draw any two chords as  $a b$  and  $c d$  and at their centers erect perpendiculars to them. The point where the perpendiculars meet will be the center of the circle.

#### HOW TO SHARPEN A FIFER DIE.

BY GEORGE F. BROWN

I discovered a short time ago that a mill-cut file would sharpen a solid pipe die quite easily and quickly without removing the temper in the die. The first few runs of the file will slide without cutting, this being due to the grease on the die. Just as soon as the greasy surface is thoroughly worked off,



A FIFER DIE CAN BE SHARPENED WITH A FILE.

the file will commence to cut, and will cut very smoothly making a keen edge on the cutting thread. Heretofore I have always worked on emery grinders to try to do this work without removing the temper of the die, but found they worked very slowly on account of the small diameter of the wheels, also that it was quite a nuisance to set the die for the cutting wheel. Most mechanics would not try the file not having the least idea that it would do the work. That was my case.

#### A "SPANISH WINDLASS."

BY GEORGE F. BROWN

Heretofore it is a sketch of what is known among cowboys as a "Spanish windlass" fast to the load, the other to a "dead man," tree, or fence post. The vertical post or timber which is used as a drum is rotated by means of a bar placed in a nearly horizontal position bearing against the vertical post but not fastened to it. The rope is passed around the end of this horizontal bar.

One man holds the post against the ground and vertical, and a second man walks around with the bar passing it above the rope, and thus winding the rope on the vertical post.



A "SPANISH WINDLASS."

The whole windlass moves toward the "dead man" as the rope is wound on, or it may be used in the opposite direction.

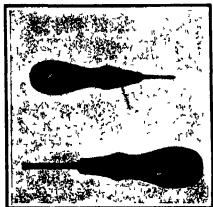


made in the ground for the vertical post to turn in. This winch is very useful for pulling wagons and autos out of the mud. All one needs is a rope and two posts or timbers.

THE WRITING OF TOOL HANDLES.

By J. J. JARVIS.

How often it occurs that when a tool such as a hand saw or particularly a keen-edged chisel is thrown down in a hurry it will roll over the bench and fall upon the floor, perhaps into a glue pot or upon the foot of the workman, or on a hard surface that will nick or dull the cutting edge. The following little scheme is employed with all the wood-working tools of the writer and found to answer admirably. Here a hole in that part of the handle that rests upon the bench, with a five-eighths reamer dull cutting twist bit. Here the hole only as far as the center of the handle, but no farther, or the object desired will be defeated. A dull cutting bit makes a rough-sided hole. Into this pour some melted lead (of course the lead should not be too hot). When the lead becomes set, trim it off evenly with a fine rasp and finish off with coarse sand paper. Now when the tool is thrown down hurriedly upon the work bench it will not roll over more than once and will come to rest leaded side down. This little device is not only inexpensive, it is thoroughly effective, it will not only save annoyance, it will prevent many an accident, which no one can realize more than the man who is handy in the use of wood working tools.



READ AWAY WITH HANDLES WEIGHTED TO PREVENT ROLLING.

The illustration shows two hand saws, fitted as described, and used by the writer for several years.

AN ILLUMINATED GAS HEATER.

By F. W. WILLIAMS.

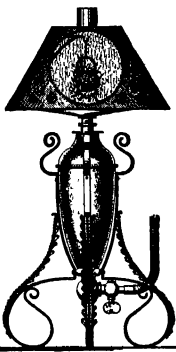
The accompanying illustration shows how an illuminated gas heater can be made. The heater is mounted on a suitable pedestal, such as a wrought-iron stand or a base of some old discarded oil lamp. The heater proper consists of a burner A, a screen B, and an outside cover or shield C, which is removable. A suitable handle is provided at the top of the cover for this purpose.

Through the base passes an ordinary gas pipe, and at its lower end a stopcock is fitted with a suitable attachment for a rubber hose so that it can be connected to the gas supply in the usual manner. At the upper end of the gas pipe is attached an adjustable sleeve for regulating the proper proportion of air to be mixed with the gas. The sleeve terminates in the burner proper, which is made with double walls. The lower part is made conical, so as to better distribute the mixture of gas and air. The burner proper is made from ordinary culinary utensils, the inside part from a small pan, and the outside part is made from a colander with very small holes, the smaller the better. These two parts are riveted together at the top, so as to make them tight. The lower or conical part may be made from ordinary black iron and may be fastened to the upper part as well as to the lower or gas pipe in any suitable manner, as by riveting or screwing.

The screen is made of wire netting fastened together, forming a cone with the same taper as the burner. The upper strands are bent inward so as to serve as a support for the cone. On this screen, proper asbestos fibers are attached. The raw Canadian rock asbestos is procured and the fibers pulled out in long threads, sometimes two or three inches long. These fibers are fastened and spread all over the surface on top of the perforations in the burner, and when the gas is lighted an incandescent mass will be formed which radiates heat but is not consumed. The outside cover is also made from some sort of pot or tin, provided with a top with a suitable handle, terminating with a downwardly extending rod, which passes through holes in the top of the burner proper and fits into a small socket at the lower or conical end. This is for the purpose of keeping it securely attached to the same. A

number of holes at the top should be made for the circulation of the air and spent gases.

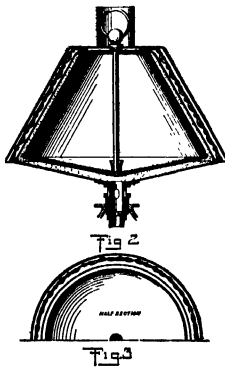
The cover may be cut out or perforated in such a way as to represent a landscape or any conventional design. The inside of the shield may be lined with mica so as to render the heater more safe. The mica may be tinted in almost any color desirable. Aniline colors are dissolved in amyl acetate, then mixed with any acetate colloidal (commonly called banana oil). This mixture is applied with a soft brush and will dry very evenly. It will withstand a great deal of



A GAS HEATER IN THE FORM OF A LAMP.

heat. When the burner is lighted the gas will burn and form small blue beads on the outside of the perforated burner, and as the flame strikes the asbestos there it will make them glow very brilliantly and change colors as the fibers are moved to and fro by the currents of air passing between the cover and the burner.

If factually made the heater may be used on the top of a table and will be a real ornament to the house but, of course, will show off to a better advantage.



SECTIONAL VIEWS SHOWING DETAIL OF CONSTRUCTION.

tags in a dark room. The outside cover is not at all necessary, but is only used to get the desired effect.

FILES AND THEIR USES.

By JOHN C. CURRY.

Nearly everyone who has had much filing to do, knows what a difficult thing it is to get hold of a reliable hand. Wood ones will split even if ferruled, or the steel ferrule will become battered and weakened. Steel ones are very satisfactory, and the best known are always in the way. The following is a simple method of reinforcing the file handle: At the

end of the file handle turn two 5-inch grooves, placing them 5/8 inch apart. Connect by two diagonal grooves of the same size, wrap with a piece of paper, and pour rabbit metal or solder in the top. Trim up, and you have an everlasting file handle. A simple and inexpensive file cleaner is made by hammering either end of a medium or large sized common wire nail until it is flat. This tapering flat piece is then trimmed to the shape of a file, and filed to an even thin edge. This cleaner is self adjusting to all files and is far more effective than the expensive wire brushes usually used.

Files as nearly everyone knows are made from the best of tool steel to hold a sharp and strong edge under tremendous strain. This steel primarily has to be capable of being easily worked, and after it is worked of holding the finest temper imaginable. It will be seen therefore that it must necessarily be the best of raw material for the articles enumerated below. It must be remembered that files have a very high temper, and therefore in all operations in which this degree of hardness is not essential, the temper should be drawn by heating and cooling down slowly in order to render the steel less brittle. In fact, the temper and quality of a good file are indicated by the fact that the writer has seen made and has tried satisfactorily a razor ground from a 10-inch flat mill file on a regular emery wheel and then honed and stropped into shape.

Perhaps the first use I ever saw old files put to was a full set of nail sets made from 6-inch triangular files by snapping them off to an even length at five inches and grinding the points down to various sizes required. The top ends were rounded off nicely, and the teeth were ground just enough to give a beautiful knurled effect to the set. I asked the mechanic who made these tools why he hadn't used retail files and make them round, but he said he just wanted them different from the common run of tools. Some years later I did have the pleasure of seeing a beautiful set made from round files. Only with these there was a full unground strip between the two ends, to afford a good grip for the fingers.

Another splendid set which was evolved out of files

REINFORCED FILE HANDLES.

by a machinist who had occasion to do a little special pattern making from time to time, was a complete set of little V-shaped gouges and flat chisels and half rounds, all made with curved shanks to match other likewise patterned pieces. These were made by forging small files of the requisite cross section into the curve required, and grinding the shank and edge to the tool desired. By requisite cross section I mean that he always took a flat file to make a flat chisel and a triangular one for a V-shaped one, etc. When these were ground nearly to their finished sizes he hardened them by suddenly cooling in oil from a cherry red heat, and then tempered them to a medium size and again cooled them, after which they were given their final grinding and sharpening. The tang on the file was just the thing to fasten the finished tool in a firmly finished handle, and his tool was complete.

If you want a good heavy center punch, snap off either a retail or triangular file of the right size to a convenient length, say five inches, grind a good long taper up to the last 5/8 of an inch, and make the taper shorter to give more motion to the point, and there you are.

Sometimes a file will help out a serious difficulty if it is only used. An excellent example of this is absolutely necessary to shear off some large spikes in some built up timbers that had already been planed in a building. It looked well high impossible until I thought to sharpen a file to an edge on the blunt end, similar to a cold chisel, and by driving this in between the piles it was a simple matter to cut the spikes, though to tell the truth it spoiled the edge of the file several times before they were all cut.

Perhaps the most common use to which they are put is to make them into burnishers for sharpening cabinet scrapers and the like. For these they are simply mounted in a handle and ground until they are perfectly smooth. Triangular files are the ones commonly used for this purpose.

A round file makes an excellent scraper for any purpose and with scarcely any trouble to transform it ready for its new duties as it needs only to be sharpened.

An amateur desiring to take up brass cut work, and not wanting to pay the exorbitant price generally exacted for an outfit, decided to make one from files. In less than two hours he had made every tool illustrated in a large assortment, and they were creditable-looking and completely sufficient for any and every purpose, and included all the customary planing, deadening, tracing, and stippling tools.







proceeding is required to see this signal  
change from danger to clear

At all stations a record is kept showing the departing time of every train at this station and at the next station east and west. Supposing a west-bound train to be approaching a station semaphore. The telegraph operator, if he has no orders on hand for this train to meet anything at his station, consults his block record, and if the block west is clear he calls up the station west, and obtains permission to let a train in the block. He then pulls his block signal clear and holds it in this position until the train is by, immediately reporting it to both block stations and the dispatcher.

If a train from any cause has to stop between stations or finds itself on the schedule time of a superior train it has to flag, putting down torpedoes and sending a man with a red flag ahead and back notwithstanding the knowledge that the telegraph operator will not let another train enter the block until it is clear

Now, on double track things are very much simplified, as all trains going in only one way on the same track, and only have to take siding to allow a train to pass. The signal is placed at the use of automatic electric block signals placed at intervals of about a mile, all signals being on the right hand side of the track which they govern. At every station the rails are insulated, thus cutting the tracks up into blocks between the signals. These signals are so wired that when a train approaches one of them, if the block ahead is clear, the train is allowed to pass the signal to the rail on opposite side of track through the wheels of the train, raising the signal to come clear, in this position it stands until the engine passes it. If one of these signals is found to be inoperative, the train is to stop two or three long enough to allow a preceding train to clear the block to the next signal, and then proceed with caution to the next.

These automatic signals work over two thousand times to one failure, and are so constructed that a failure leaves the signal at the danger position.

**Matrimony of the Victim and Working Capacity of the Man Before and After an Accident.**—The problem of matrimony of the victim and working capacity of the latter after an accident is divided into two parts. It is necessary to establish, first, the condition in which the victim was before the accident, his habits and functions of the body, and, secondly, the effects of the consequences of the accident on his health and on his working capacity in the previous occupation, if he is unable to continue it, or at such other occupations as he may be able to carry on. In order to solve this problem, the following methods are generally employed for the solution of this problem. The attendant physicians and the medical experts give their opinion on the condition of the victim, employing the exact methods of examination which are used in physiological laboratories. The statements of the victim appear false or exaggerated, the truth could easily be ascertained by the examination of the electric appearance of the nerves and muscles. Dr. Imbort describes various procedures which he has made in the examination of the victim, especially, matrimony. He thinks that it is possible to arrange a mass of useful data in a form in which they may be easily available to the physician and the individual case.

That apparently most remote of the influences from the exactness of physical laws, economics, has been brought under the treatment of mathematics, not only by statistical methods, but by methods of the calculus. The distinguished mathematician and economist Cournot applied to the theory of wealth methods like those used in mechanics to treat of equilibria, so that very complicated economic principles were amenable to treatment by methods.



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most favorable climate for the desire for home improvement. THE PACIFIC—This is an article by Francis Juergens Nichols, treating of the modern house as seen in the various parts of the country and illustrated by photographic views of the exterior and interior of the houses as well as the plans of the same. HOW TO BUILD A PERGOLA AND A GARDEN SEAT—A Knapp-Bond tells in an illustrated article how it is possible for an amateur to build a pergola and a garden seat for a small garden. A GARDEN SEAT—An illustration of a garden seat, with a description of the material and the method of carrying out the subject to accurate detail. Very few understand the significance in furnishing a colonial house, in its truest sense. Mary Livingston, who has made a special study of this subject, presents in this article a plan for a garden seat, which is a very useful addition to a garden, a library, dining room, and bed rooms, which is properly illustrated with views showing the location and the construction of the same.

**THE SMALL KITCHEN OF TO DAY**—There is no part of the house which receives so little attention and yet requires so much, as the kitchen. Mr. Robert Spencer, Jr. has prepared an interesting and valuable treatise on this subject, illustrated with numerous plans, showing its proper relation with the other rooms. All good housekeepers will find it of great importance, and no one is better qualified to give such information than Mr. Spencer, who has made a special study of the kitchen and its dependencies.

**THE OUT-OF-DOOR LIVING ROOM.**—Now that we are coming to the warm season of the year, our thoughts dwell upon getting out of doors, and there is no more important feature of a house which should receive proper consideration than the living porch. Mr. John A. Gade has prepared an article treating upon this timely subject, which is illustrated, showing the various ways by which a porch may be furnished and inclosed, and the various styles of porch design.

**PLANNING THE SMALL GARDEN** - The garden is a frame for the house picture and success in its treatment means that each tree and shrub should be properly placed as well as properly grown. During Underwood, the well-known author tells, in a very pleasing way how it is possible to obtain the garden picture. The article is illustrated with drawings showing how the garden is planned and shrubs

**DECORATIONS AND FURNISHINGS FOR THE HOME**—Alice M. Kellogg presents her third paper which is devoted to wall papers and curtains. This article is illustrated with photographic views showing the combination of wall papers and curtains of the same design and pattern for the use at windows and

**AUTOMOBILING** - The automobile has become a necessity for the country house of today and Stanley Yale Beach, the Automobile Editor of the *McGraw-Hill American*, tells in a practical way how it is possible for a man to have and maintain a small motor car. The article is illustrated, and shows auto

**POTTERY MAKING FOR THE AMATEUR**—Everyone is interested in pottery making especially the kind of pottery making which can be done by the amateur. Mabel Tuke Priestman presents in a illustrated article views that show some of the most beautifully made pottery of America.

**THE USE OF CEMENT IN THE BUILDING OF THE SUBURBAN HOUSE AND GARAGE.**—Mr. Robert W. Gardner, the well known architect who has made a special study of the use of cement, has prepared a book which is very intimately presented by Edith Haviland, Miss Haviland takes one through the house, and shows the proper furniture and treatment for the various rooms.

**GARDEN NOTES**—Charles Downing Lay describes in his department how to layout and plant a lawn, the kind of trees and shrubs to avoid in planting, and a vast amount of other information that will be of interest to all gardeners.

The price will be 80 cents. Those now subscribing for *American Homes and Gardens* will receive it at the regular rate. Subscription price \$3.00 a year.

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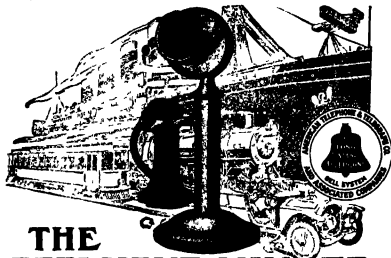
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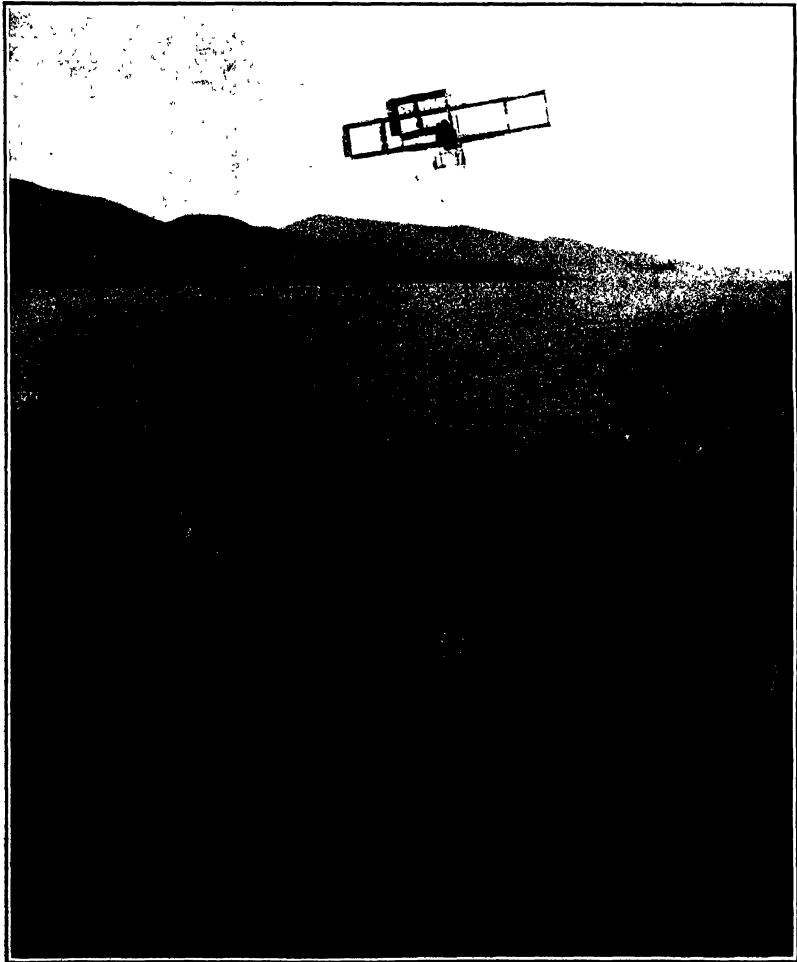
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trials to those which were run with the reciprocating engine. Except for the substitution of turbines for reciprocating engines, the ship with respect to draft, boiler, and propulsion was in exactly the same condition as in the first trials.

When the results came to be worked up, it was found that with seventy revolutions of the propeller, the vessel was not spin of from 15 to 16 per cent when steam for all purposes was considered, and of from 18 to 19 per cent for the propelling engines alone. Translated into terms of boiler power, this means that one boiler out of every six in the slow cargo boat can be dispensed with.

Speaking of the important question of the strength of the mechanical gearing Mr. Parsons stated that as the 'Vespasian' had been taken out in a heavy sea without experiencing any trouble with the reduction gear, it was probable that the gear would stand anything that the shaft would stand in the discussion of the paper various shipbuilders referred to the long-standing prejudice against mechanical gearing, and it was the general opinion that its rapid wear was due to the imperfections of manufacture which characterised old machine work in the early days of the steamship, which gear was used for speeding up the propeller just as today it is being used for speeding down the early mechanical gearing, moreover, because of its

ENGINEERING.

**The Pennsylvania Railroad** last week opened the first electric train through the tunnels under Manhattan Island and the West River. The train, made up of six construction cars, left the electric locomotive, ran from the station in New York to the Thompson Avenue viaduct in Buzsardville yard, Long Island City.

An important link in the proposed waterway from the Lakes to the Gulf must be eliminated from consideration of that scheme, at least for the present. The section referred to is known as the Illinois River Deep Waterway, for which it was proposed that the State should spend \$30,000,000, in the extension of the Chicago drainage canal through the valley of the Illinois River. The bill proposed to proceed with the construction was defeated in a special session of the Illinois Legislature, which adjourned last month.

The city of Seattle is doing some exceptionally heavy grading in the reduction of the steep hills in that city. This grading, which has always been going on intermittently, has recently been undertaken on an ambitious scale, and under the present scheme over fourteen million cubic yards have been removed. When the plan is completed, the total will have reached thirty-four million cubic yards. The work is being done by the hydro-pneumatic method, and the present project covers an area of forty-three city blocks.

**The Great Western Railway in England** is installing a compact railway ticket printing machine. When a ticket for a certain route is punched, the machine touches an indicator which carries the name of the station, slips a blank into a slot, turns a handle, and the completed ticket drops out. At the same time a record of the sale is printed on a continuous strip of paper, together with the fare and all the information required for bookkeeping. When the clerk goes off duty, he simply has to total up the continuous strip of paper and count the cash.

It is well understood among naval men that the speed of a vessel is affected by the depth of the water not merely in shoal places, but in the deeper waterways. With a view to determining this effect, different depths of water have on speed, the Board of Invention and Survey has arranged that the standard station trials of three vessels shall be made over three different courses. The "Albatross," "Albatross," and "destroyers" "Held" and "Flusser" will have their trials over three measured mile courses, one at Rockland Point, another at Cape Cod and the third in Delaware Bay.

The Mallet articulated compound locomotive continues to grow in favor, the reports from locomotives of this type which have been some time in service being in general very favorable. The New York Central system has recently ordered a Mallet locomotive for service on the Boston & Albany line. The present class of heavy freight engine on that road has a maximum tractive power of 35 tons, whereas the Mallet, when working compound, has 35 tons, and when working simply 40 tons tractive power. The success of this type in freight service is undisputed. What results it will give in fast passenger service time will tell. The operation of the powerful express Mallet on the Santa Fe road will be watched with great interest.

**Advice from Washington** state that the chief of the Bureau of Navigation of the Navy, the aid for operations, and the aid for personnel, are mapping out another extended cruise of the battleship "Maine" to present the scheme proposed a naval review at Hampton Roads, followed by the departure of sixteen ships in four divisions for Gibraltar, where the divisions will separate and visit the ports of the Mediterranean. It is possible, though not decided, that the fleet will proceed thence through the Bosphorus to the Philippines and San Francisco, returning home by the Straits of Magellan. The fleet will include the four new dreadnoughts, "Delaware," "North Dakota," "Michigan," and "South Carolina," and the "New Hampshire," "Mississippi," and "Idaho," seven of our latest battleships, which were on tour in the former cruise.

We are indebted to Mr. Frank G. Taylor for the description of the new dam with which it is proposed to replace the wrecked structure across the Colorado River, which was carried away last June. The dam, which will be constructed of reinforced concrete, will rise 65 feet above low water and extend for 1,096 feet in length. The portion of the old dam which was not carried away will be incorporated in the new structure. It will be supplemented by a reinforced concrete addition, which will raise its crest above the highest that the old dam. To prevent the recurrence of the seepage through the dam, which was so disastrous to the old structure, certain walls two feet thick are carried down thirty feet below water, and at the bottom of the trenches there are drilled five feet apart to a depth of five feet into which liquid cement grout will be pumped at a pressure of 100 pounds per square inch, thus filling the crevices.

ELECTRICITY.

Utah is becoming interested in hydro-electric power plants, and is examining into the matter of electrifying suburban divisions of its State railroad. An investigation is being made of our high tension transmission system, and it is probable that a new field will be opened for American engineers.

An electric lighting plant in Nebraska, a manufacturing use as a by-product. The exhaust steam of the plant, which would otherwise go to waste in utilized in the ammonia absorption process of ice-making, and also for distilling water from which the ice is made. This venture, we are informed, has proved a very profitable one for the lighting company, and might be copied to advantage by other plants similarly situated.

A new system of treating eggs so as to prevent them from growing state when in cold storage has been discovered in Rochester. This consists in subjecting the eggs to an electrical current. The theory is that eggs when placed in storage are alive and are gradually frozen to death, whereas if the life is destroyed by an electrical current before they are placed in storage they do not taste stale, even when kept on ice for a long period of time.

An address recently made by Prof. John W. Whitehead of Johns Hopkins University it was pointed out that out of the 225,000 miles of railroad in this country, only 10,000 miles have as yet been electrified. He called attention to the fact that the electrification of the elevated railroads in New York resulted in increasing the capacity of the roads fifty per cent. To be sure, the questions of electrifying suburban, express and freight service require separate consideration, but Prof. Whitehead showed that in each case electrification is possible and often preferable.

Tungsten filaments are commonly made by melting the filaments in a gas, that is then extruded in the form of a filament after which the waste expelled and the particles of metal are added together by an electric current. This complicated method of forming the filaments is due to the fact that tungsten is not sufficiently ductile to be drawn out into fine filaments. An English concern has just discovered a method of producing drawn filaments of tungsten and of electric. This company has also just announced the discovery of a method by which tungsten can be rendered sufficiently ductile to permit of its being drawn into fine wires. The drawn tungsten filament is stronger than the filament made by the "shrink" process.

The Junior Wireless Club is making a strong protest against bills that are now before Congress aimed to restrict amateur work in wireless telegraphy. They objectable to them is the proposed annual fee of \$100, to be collected from all amateur stations. As there are between 40,000 and 50,000 boys in the country with their own wireless equipments this virtually represents a tax of between four and five million dollars. Of course, very few boys could pay a \$100 fee, and the result would be that practically all amateurs would be eliminated from wireless experimentation. It does not seem as though this would be advisable, because many of the improvements in wireless telegraphy have been the work of amateurs.

Explosives are often raised in flour mills and breweries by mills or other iron particles that find their way into the grain, and which when they strike the steel rolls of the mills produce sparks and ignite the highly pulverized material about them. Recently a large mailing concern that had been troubled by many such explosions installed a set of electro-magnets over the grain as it passed before being prepared for shipment to the brewer. All iron particles in the grain are thus picked up by the magnets and 800 to 1,000 pounds of grains are cleaned per hour. When the magnets have collected a large amount of metal, they are swung to one side down-dropped, and swept clean of any particles adhering to them by residual magnetic force. Since the installation of these magnets, there have been no explosions in the mills.

A series of tests was recently conducted for the Board of Education of Newark to determine the best form of lighting for schoolrooms. The rooms in which the experiments were tried measured 31 by 34 feet and were 12 feet high. Three systems were tried, consisting of twenty-two 16-candle-power lamps, five 75-candle-power gasolized incandescent lamps, and five 100-watt tungsten lamps with glass reflectors and frosted tips. The tungsten lamps were the most economical and gave by far the best light at each desk, as was determined by illuminometer readings. A similar investigation has been made in Boston, where it was found that the room be lit by a lamp placed along the side walls just under the ceiling in boxes with prismatic glass bottoms, which would cast the rays into the room at the desired angle.

SCIENCE.

According to the Journal des Chim., it has been shown that small quantities of blennium exert little or no influence on the chemical relation of copper and nitric acid.

At a recent meeting of the Royal Society of Medicine in London, a warning was sounded against the reckless use of radium. Even the reputed favorable effects of radium in the treatment of cancer were sharply criticized.

The Seine is the fourth largest river in France ranking in size below the Loire, the Rhone, and the Garonne. Its drainage basin (30,470 square miles) is larger than that of the Rhine (27,000 square miles) or the Sacramento (27,100 square miles).

Mr. John Murray, KCB, the well-known naturalist, will head an expedition for biological and physiological exploration in the North Atlantic. Although much has been done in this region an enormous field is still unexplored. Mr. John sailed from Plymouth on the 14th. The crew will be explored to the depth of 1,000 feet.

It is said that Prof. Karl Harries of the University of Kiel has produced a synthetic rubber. The actual details of the process are not before us. Attempts such as these have been made again and again but with no commercial success. The professor, however, said for them that they indicate the possibility of producing a synthetic rubber from turpentine at some future time.

Dr. Robbman, an English writer, calls attention to the development of the jaws of English men who were taken out of the streets of London and sent into the British navy. He says "Undoubtedly the important success in improvement in man is to be seen in the superior stature and healthy appearance of the total change in the shape and expression of their faces. On analyzing this, one finds that it was to be mainly accounted for by the increased growth and improved shape of the lower jaw." The change is due to the rationing of hard task and "soft junk" upon which the jaws had subsisted.

Scientists from all parts of the world will gather in Pasadena (Calif.) next week and will attend the Wilson. Almost one hundred leading scientists of Europe and America have accepted invitations extended by the Carnegie Hall Observatory to participate in the first meeting of the International Union of Astronomical Union for co-operation in solar research. Among those will be Prof. H. C. of Mount Pinel Ob. secretary. Sixty German astronomers and French will and four of these will be from the United States. It is the largest telescope in the world for the study of the sun and by August a new one will have been completed. This will be a 150-foot solar telescope, which will be more than double the power of any other instrument of the kind for photographing the sun's rays.

Some years ago several applications of the Thorpe lens in light diffraction gratings were exhibited notably their use with an opera glass for collimate work. The only disadvantage of these is the necessity of employing glass lenses for collimator and telescope which not only increase the expense but render the instrument somewhat limited. In that the ultra-violet region of the spectrum is more or less absorbed. Recent experiments by Mr. C. P. Butler have shown that concave replica gratings can be made to give very satisfactory results, and by slight modifications of the design of mounting this form of spectroscopy may be employed for any investigation for which the ordinary concave gratings are valuable. It has been found that the radius of curvature may be varied within very wide limits thus providing instruments of different dispersion and light gathering power.

The orbits of the two inner satellites of Uranus were determined by Newcomb in 1875. At that time no appreciable eccentricity could be certainly proved to exist in either orbit. Otto Bergstrand, of the observatory of Upsala, Sweden, has recently published a discussion of the orbits of these satellites. He found that the two satellites are in 1:4 ratio, chiefly with the great 36-hour equatorial of the 14th observatory. Bergstrand finds that the orbit of the second satellite (Mirabel), is clearly elliptical and that its apse, or perihelion, is subject to a secular displacement from which a flat tending of Uranus at the poles may be inferred, and the value of oblateness approximately calculated. No comparable displacement is found in the observations of the planet has been obtained by direct observation. Bergstrand deduces from the observations, also, the value of the major axis and eccentricity of the orbit of Mirabel and that of the mass of Uranus, which he finds equal approximately to 1/23300 the mass of the sun. This value in combination with Barnard's value of 2.975 seconds for the angular equatorial rotation of Uranus, makes the density of the planet 0.16 that of the earth. Bergstrand's values for the mass and density of Uranus are smaller than those which have hitherto been accepted.

# THE EROSION OF BRONZE PROPELLERS

## ONE EFFECT OF THE HIGH SPEED TURBINE

The introduction of high-speed turbine engines has produced a serious amount of erosion in propellers made of high-tension bronze—a material which until recently showed no serious erosion effects. The trouble which the bronze manufacturer has been chiefly occupied in preventing was corrosion both chemical and galvanic, but erosion or the mechanical breaking up of the material by the action of the water, was formerly never considered. One of the most astonishing cases of severe erosion occurred in the case of the Cunard liner "Mauretania", for after she had been in service about three months, on dropping the ship it was found that all the bronze propellers were badly eaten away, those at the stern being least affected. The area that suffered most was situated about two feet from the root and toward the outer edge of the blade. The corroded area amounted to three or four square feet, and the metal had been eaten away in depths which varied from a quarter of an inch to two and a half inches.

A very thorough examination of the problem was made by Dr. Oswald Silberrad, who, after an exhaustive series of laboratory and other experiments, determined that the deterioration was due to erosion, and found that it could be prevented by the use of a special bronze alloy whose chemical and physical properties were designed specially to meet the condition.

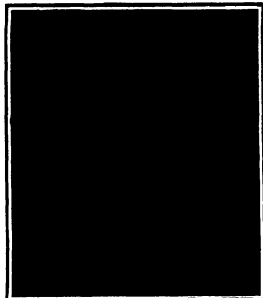
Dr. Silberrad came to the conclusion that since the material without the aid of conditions of propeller service, the primary cause of the deterioration was due to the modified conditions of higher propeller speed, etc. In discussing the new conditions he calls attention, first, to the terrible surface friction of the water. The "Mauretania" was originally fitted with four three-bladed, built-up propellers, of the usual high-tension bronze that has been employed for many years for the propellers of Atlantic liners. They were a little less than 17 feet in diameter, and upon the westward voyage the average revolutions of the engine were 174, the horsepower developed being about 68,000. The perimeter of each propeller traveled through the water in a helical path at a speed of about 108 miles per hour, and transmitted to the water during the whole of the voyage no less than 17,000 horsepower. "The consideration of these figures," says Dr. Silberrad, "enables us to realize that, under such conditions, the water becomes a very rough file for any alloy to withstand, and when the standard bronze, which has proved so serviceable in the past was subjected to these conditions, we can scarcely be surprised that it failed."

A curious feature in the problem was the wide and marked difference in the degree and position of the deterioration in the various propellers examined. Thus in the starboard ship "Lusitania," where the conditions were at first apparently identical, the backs of the propellers were quite as much affected as the faces. Moreover, the propellers of certain destroyers showed a maximum damage at the base (see illustration) where the helical velocity is least. In looking for secondary causes, "dirt in the castings" was

excluded because the eroded castings proved to be exceptionally free from dirt, "galvanic action" also was shut out by the fact that analysis showed that no large concentration of copper had occurred on the eroded surface. At the same time the areas of maximum deterioration do not coincide with the view that erosion is alone the primary cause, since these areas in no case occur at the extreme tips of the blades, where the helical velocity is greatest.

After a prolonged research, involving the examination of a large number of cases of propeller deterioration, it was proved that the trouble was primarily erosion, although the degree to which secondary causes entered into the problem varied more widely than was anticipated.

In a series of tests to determine the relative rates



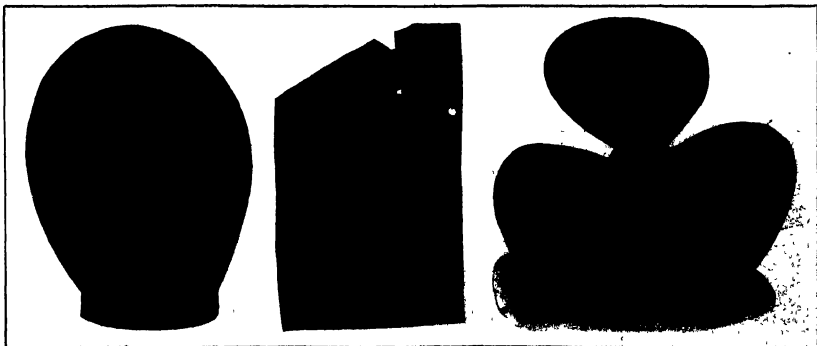
One of the new solid propellers of the "Mauretania" of special turbine alloy, which fail to show any erosion.

tance to erosion of a large number of different alloys it was found that the number of hours necessary to produce a certain deterioration varied from 24,700 hours, the time of the regular standard bronze, to 117,400 hours for Parsons new turbine alloy, which was used to cast the new four-bladed, solid propellers with which the "Mauretania" and "Lusitania" have been equipped. An examination of these propellers, each of which weighs about twenty tons, was made after they had been running for nearly six months, by the surveyor for Germanischer Lloyd, who reported that he found them in perfect condition. It is significant, also, that since their adoption for the forward, or wing shafts each of these ships added about three-quarters of a knot to its previous best speed.

As the same four-bladed propellers are to be fitted to the other two stern shafts it is likely that the transatlantic speed may be raised this summer above the 26.05 average at which it now stands.

It was in 1860 that Mr. Hind read a paper before the Royal Astronomical Society in which he traced the appearance of Halley's Comet through the ages with the help of the Chinese annals, which had only recently become known in Europe. Although he was sometimes wrong, he was nearly always right. He believed that in the Chinese annals he had found credible references to Halley's Comet back to the year B. C. 11. He reported it as certain that Halley's Comet reached its perihelion in 1378, and therefore, allowing the normal periodicity, he looked for some mention of it about the year 1801. The Chinese annals definitely describe a great comet in that year. There was one European account of it by Prior Gile which was not reconcilable with the Chinese record. If the Chinese were describing Halley's Comet it seemed that Prior Gile certainly was not. Hind was led to an examination of Gile's credibility. He discovered that his account of another comet in 1864 was so contradictory that he had no hesitation whatever in preferring the Chinese statement for 1801, and concluded that the comet of 1801 was Halley's. He believed that the preceding return of the comet was in 1328, when, in July, shortly before the death of Philip Augustus, a comet was seen for eight days in the evening twilight. The Chinese annals do not mention this comet, but they mention comets in the years 1323 and 1324, neither of which Hind thought closely resembled Halley's Comet. Cowell and Crommelin have shown that Hind was wrong about the particularly bright comet of 1323, which was unquestionably Halley's Comet. Not all of Hind's "ascriptions," as art critics say, are reconcilable with Cowell and Crommelin's latest calculations, but enough is established on all hands to prove that Halley's Comet has been appearing ever since the history of the skies has been written.

A new type of locomotive designed to secure smokeless combustion of bituminous coal has recently been tried on two or three of the railways entering Chicago. The apparatus is designed to operate on the coking principle. The coal is so fed as to admit of the gases being first consumed, the resulting coals being fed to the grate and consumed without the black smoke of more rapid and incomplete combustion. Within the fire-box is a magazine which may be changed in quantity, a ton at a time if desired, from which the coal is automatically fed to the fire. A rotary fan underneath the fire-box affords a supply of fresh air to assist the proper combustion of the gases before they escape through the tubes, and supplies the necessary draught. The arrangement has been used with some success in connection with stationary plants, but there appears to be some skepticism whether the fire thus produced will be of sufficient intensity for locomotive purposes.



Erosion of bronze blade of "Mauretania" after three months' service.

Portion of torpedo-boat destroyer showing severe surface erosion.

Bronze propeller of a destroyer, showing pronounced erosion about the root portion.

THE ILLUSTRATIONS BY JACQUES FROSTENBERG

BY DR. ALFRED GRADENWITZ

### THE MEMORANDA AS TOOL DETECTIVE

seed oil, and such substance as burnt sugar. Cayenne pepper, with other, usually crude, kinds of fat, and French plum juice are frequently imported into brandy and whiskey.

The term "adulteration" when applied to food or drugs is broad in its scope, but has a well-defined legal meaning. In general it may be said that adulteration consists in injuriously substituting for a substance any part of its original or inherent qualities or adding to it any ingredient which renders the article of a different nature than that of its expressed and natural form.

Almost coexistent with the growth of this wonderful country, and seemingly as old as the fierce border wars competition which has insistently developed, this evil of food and drug adulteration has arisen. The conditions of substitution and adulteration of foods and drugs were little short of deplorable less than a decade ago. For seventeen long years the bill which has now become the Pure Food Law lay at the door of Congress and during all that time it was bitterly opposed by the manufacturers who had so long enjoyed unimpaired the privilege of supplying the dinner tables of the nation with impure foods miserably labeled.

While this act has done much good, there is still a very considerable amount of adulteration practiced. Pepper adulteration is still remarkably common and "Pure White City" Honey is still a common feature of the honey law from glucose. Other enterprising manufacturers will cause two grains of Cayenne pepper to grow where only one grew before, by making one of the grains grow under the other, and the second bean may be found in black pepper, and colery seed may be adulterated with forty per cent of powdered rock.

In order to run down one class of food faking, the pure-food experts at Washington have introduced the microscope into their work. It can be readily used to detect gross adulteration may be detected by a simple microscope, as, for instance, when foreign seeds, gravel, or powdered rock have been mixed with whole small specks. The adulterant may be of such a character as to escape the notice of the ordinary buyer, though with even a small lens readily recognizable foreign substance may be seen to be very different from the true spice.

The usefulness of the simple magnifier in examining food and drug materials, is a recent discovery of little value for the examination of products which are made up of small particles such as flour, ground spices and powdered drugs. In such cases recourse must be had to the compound microscope, which gives a magnifying power ranging from fifty to four hundred diameters.

This world's supply of starch comes from the most part from a limited number of plants, twelve or fifteen in all, nearly all that are of commercial importance. To the naked eye these starches all appear as a fine white powder, but under a microscope grains or granules are seen which vary more or less in shape, size, rings, hilum and action toward polarized light. Some of the grains are almost spherical, others are angular or ovaloid and still others are very irregular in outline. In diameter they vary from one-sixteenth to one-thousandth of a millimeter. In no variety are all the starch grains of one size, but usually there are fairly well-defined limits. The way in which they sometimes vary will be seen by reference to the photographs reproduced in this article. Most of the grains show, more or less clearly fine lines of rings upon the surface. In some varieties these are arranged concentrically, while in others they are arranged in a spiral.

A hilum (hilum) is a common form and position varies widely in certain species commonly occurs in starches." says B. J. Howard, who has charge of this microscopic work in the Bureau of Chemistry, Washington. "In some it is at the center as in corn and wheat starch, in others near one end, as in potato and arrowroot. When viewed in polarized light starches show more or less bright cross with the hilum often showing through the hilum. Wheat starch has a central cross while in manna it is eccentric and well defined. Bean starch, which illustrates the leguminous type, has a spindle-shaped cross. In the cell a number of starch granules are joined together forming a mass. When these masses of starch are examined under polarized light individual grains in the mass have their own individual effect, and cross with the hilum other than there results little more than a gray glow of light."

By becoming familiar with these characteristics it is possible to identify with considerable accuracy nearly all of the commercial starches. Potato starch adulterated with corn starch wheat with corn flour, and buckwheat with wheat are examples of these most easily detected. One of our photographs shows a picture of potato starch adulterated with a considerable amount of corn starch. The grains of the latter are easily distinguished by the changes in their shape.

Another interesting illustration of the microscopic method of food analysis is found in the examination of spices. Many of these naturally vary so widely as to ash, fiber, etc., and in tests that it is impossible to

identify certain kinds of adulteration by chemical and physical means alone. A study of the structure of pure samples will usually fit the analyst to detect adulteration in the ground spices as well as to identify the adulterant. In order to work most intelligently, however it is imperative that the analyst should have a good foundation in biological botany, since in this class of products the plant cell in its various modifications becomes the means of identification. In an examination of this sort nearly all kinds of plant tissue are to be considered, because some spices are derived from roots, as ginger, some from barks, as casia and cinnamon, some from seeds, as cloves, some from seeds, as mustard, some from fruits, as red pepper, black pepper, etc., and some, such as sage and thyme, from leaves.

"Unfortunately," says Mr. Howard, "most of the substitutions used for adulteration have a structure very different from the genuine spices. For example, although pepper may be adulterated with ground peas, or beans, it may not always be detected by chemical means, especially when olive pits or pepper shells have been added to counteract excessive starch present in beans. A microscopic examination will reveal such substitution at once by the difference in the structure of the large starch grains characteristic of certain legumes. In pepper the starch present in angular masses made up of small grains."

Another instance occurs that a manufacturer has added so large an amount of corn meal or foreign ground starch and fruit stones to a pepper as to make the adulteration apparent to the taste by the lack of pungency, which is often covered by adding a small amount of Cayenne pepper. A sophistication of this kind can be readily detected by the microscopic method of analysis, because the tissues added are so distinctly different from the normal pepper tissue. One of our photographs is shown the microscopic appearance of a sample of pepper which was grossly adulterated with ground olive stones. The starchy material has been stained black in the picture, while the partly eaten, more or less oblong in form, are the stone cells of the olive pits.

The capitate fruits are readily identified by means of the grains found on the lower portion of the pericarp (pod) and others on the seed coats. These cells have characteristic sinuous outlines which make them easy to detect even when present in very small numbers.

In coffee and chocolate preparations roasted cherry, cereals, and peas in the case of the former and starchy materials and cocoa shells in the case of the latter, are sometimes used for adulteration. In coffee the seed of a plant has a structure which is very different from cherry, which is a root. The cell walls of coffee are of a characteristic beaded appearance which is present in but few other seeds. Upon roasting and grinding these beaded can be easily distinguished while cherry contains sap vessels by which it can be detected.

Chocolate and cocoa are made from the seeds of the cocoa plant, to which foreign starches are sometimes added. Cocoa beans contain naturally a considerable amount of starch. The grains are small in size and are easily distinguished from the starchy adulterants, such as corn and wheat flours or potato corn, and arrowroot starches. An artificial chocolate coating has been examined which was composed of cocoa shells, corn starch, beef tallow and some mineral matter, probably used as a coloring substance.

In the production of artificial yellow jama, and some kinds of confectionery, various other substances are used among which might be mentioned gelatin, starch, agar-agar, gum tragacanth, and gum arabic. Some of these are difficult of identification, while others can be readily detected. Agar-agar is a vegetable product derived from seaweeds, and usually contains the siliceous shells of diatoms. These shells are characteristic and quite easily detected in the sediment from the bottom of a glass of agar-agar. The material has been dyed with dilute nitric acid. One of our photographs shows such a diatomaceous shell obtained from a sample of artificial "lemon slush" in which was found that the jellying material was agar-agar.

Corn starch can easily be detected by microchemical and microscopical tests. Gum tragacanth and some other gums of this class contain a certain amount of small diatoms. When the material has been dissolved in water delicate laminated structure is developed by which these gums are disclosed even in such products as ice cream and marshmallows.

A mass of thickness of cream composed of corn starch and powdered gum tragacanth is shown herein, and illustrates this feature quite satisfactorily. In this case the corn starch is shown plainly as the singular particles, while the striated lines near the center of the field are swollen fragments of the gum. The microscope is also of service in the examination of certain edible oils. Thus, if pure lard is adulterated with other oils the latter is allowed to evaporate slowly under proper conditions, crystals of the lard will be formed. These, if normal, will appear under the microscope as narrow plates with chisel-shaped ends. Best fat

treated in a similar manner will normally crystallize out in sheaf-like tips of crystals, the ends of which are nearly or quite needle-like.

Another application of microscopic analysis is in the identification of the wax secreted by bees. It is of this is of practical value in the analysis of honeys purporting to be from certain flowers. Although bees will almost invariably gather honey from several kinds of flowers, some bees are so particular in their selection as to such an extent as to impart a distinctive color and taste, enough to allow the honey to be called by that name. By microscopic examination it is readily ascertained whether the wax secreted by the bees is of an orange-brown honey is really largely derived from the source claimed. A photograph showing several kinds of pollen found in an ordinary sample of honey is reproduced.

## Correspondence.

THE INVENTION OF THE PLATE-PLAYER.  
To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:

I must file a disclaimer to an impression created by the illustrated article which appeared in your issue of the 9th inst., under the heading "Ringing Chimes by Perfected Means," in reference to the fact that Mr. McCormick as one of the inventors of the plate-player, I think an erroneous impression is thus conveyed regarding McCormick's true relation to the development of the plate-player.

As a matter of fact, he is known and conceded to be the father of the player by everyone in the piano trade familiar with the player history, and his claims to its inventorial stand unchallenged up to this moment. We do not refer to McCormick as one of the inventors of the player or to Howe as one of the inventors of the sewing machine nor to Cristofori as one of the inventors of the piano. Although other men besides those mentioned contributed greatly to the development and improvement of the aforesaid invention.

The history of every great invention has demonstrated that some one man has stood out pre-eminently from all his fellows in the course of its development, and the player has been no exception, and the one man who above all others stands forth pre-eminently in the player field is John McCormick, his invention and about him, like so many satellites, have stood other men who have contributed their genius to develop and improve the invention. In the case of the player it was McCormick who introduced the plate-player into the world, and on the other hand Howe was the presiding genius who led the sewing-machine pioneers, while Cristofori was the pre-eminence genius who first conceived and developed the piano.

It is true that others have improved upon the hand work of McCormick and Howe as well as upon that of Cristofori, but nobody has been able to eliminate the elements which they introduced into their respective inventions, and so long as these essential elements remain in their respective devices, just so long those inventions shall be attributed to the men we have mentioned. But the piano invented by Cristofori was a mute and silent piano, and such it remained from the time it was invented, in 1709, until 1876, when John McCormick breathed into its wooden walls the breath of life, and henceforth it became a living, breathing, yes, almost a human thing, until today it stands forth the unsurpassed and unchallenged king of musical instruments. The following definition of the player has been accepted by the piano trade as authoritative:

"Player," a musical instrument consisting of a casing two or three inches thick, of wood or metal, in which one or more of a wide variety of adapted to be operated manually, or other designed to be operated mechanically by means of a perforated sheet of paper, and which is capable of producing the effect of the sheet and actuating the reeds, a bellows and reeds put in motion by the action of the sheet, and which is provided with the automatic action foot pedals or power for driving the motor, and means for controlling the tempo and varying the expression."

Now the first man to embody the foregoing elements in a musical instrument was John McCormick, and it follows that John McCormick is the inventor of the player, Howe of the sewing machine, and Cristofori of the piano, by reason of the fact that they were the first to embody in their respective devices the essential elements which distinguished these inventions to-day, and the elimination of which would make them worthless, then by the same token John McCormick must be regarded as the father of the piano-player mechanism, for if McCormick is not the inventor of the player, then the player as we know it today has yet been made that did not contain the elements first embodied by him in a practical working instrument as early as 1876, and which was publicly exhibited in St. Louis for the same purpose as the one now in the country at the time, while your own line will show that Mann & Co applied for a patent on this identical invention on behalf of McCormick on September 7th of the same year, and prior to that time in the nature of the present player was known to the Patent Office or the public, either of this country or Europe.

WILLIAM N. TRUMAN,  
Billie Music Industry.

# THE SOLAR AND LUNAR ECLIPSES IN MAY, 1910

BY FREDERIC R. HONEY, TRINITY COLLEGE

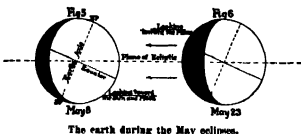
An examination of some of the conditions which govern the moon's motion reveals the great complexity of the lunar problem. While the earth's volume is nearly fifty times the moon's volume, its weight is more than eighty times—the density of the moon being only six-tenths that of the earth. As a consequence, the common center of gravity of the two bodies is within the earth at a distance of over a thousand miles from its surface, and it is this point which moves in an elliptic orbit around the sun. Twice each month the earth and the moon exchange places with reference to the sun. The moon's orbit is an ellipse with the earth at one focus, and the plane of the orbit is inclined at an angle of a little over five degrees to the ecliptic. The eccentricity is one-eighteenth, but the elliptic form is subject to great variations. The moon revolves around the earth at an average velocity of a little over five-eighths of a mile a second, but its path in space is the resultant of its motion in its orbit and of the earth's motion at a velocity of sixteen and five-eighths miles a second, illustrated at Fig. 1. The arrows *A* and *B* represent the velocities of the earth and the moon in their respective orbits. When the moon is at *M*, between the earth and the sun, the direction of the moon's motion is opposite that of the earth. At *M'* the moon's path is the resultant of the two motions. The plane of the moon's orbit rotates slowly in a direction contrary to her orbital motion, and the perigee has a slow motion in the same direction as that of the moon.

While the conditions which determine the moon's path are complex, observations extending over long periods of time show regularity in the recurrence of eclipses. (See *Scientific American*, Aug. 12, 1908.) The direction of the line of nodes is shown in the plot of the earth's orbit for November 1909 at the date of the last lunar eclipse, and also in the plot for May, 1910. During the interval this line rotates through an angle of over nine degrees. If the positions of the earth at the date of the solar and lunar eclipses in May be carefully plotted, and the moon's orbit magnified, the situation of the moon relative to the ecliptic may be determined by an inspection of the plot. The arrow *A* shows the direction of rotation of the orbit, and *B* that of the moon's motion.

At the date of the solar eclipse (May 8 7 4) the moon's orbit radius is projected on the plane of the ecliptic in the earth's orbit radius, and the moon's position is in that part of the orbit which is below the ecliptic. This is shown more clearly in Fig. 2, in which the orbit is magnified one hundred and sixty times. The moon's position is shown at Greenwich noon from May 1st to the 18th, and also at the date of the eclipses. On May 8 7 4, the date of the total eclipse of the sun, the moon will be near perigee, and approaching the ascending node *N'* which will be reached between the 8th and the 10th. The enlarged plot shows clearly that the moon will be below the ecliptic. Its shadow will therefore be projected on the southern hemisphere. The path of totality will be between latitudes 40 and 70 degrees south, and as a partial eclipse it will be visible in Australia, New Guinea, and Java. On May 23 4 the moon will be below the ecliptic, and will pass the descending node *N* on the same day. The beginning of the eclipse will be visible in portions of Africa, southwest Europe, North America except Alaska, South America, and the southern Pacific Ocean, the ending visible in South America, North America excepting Alaska, and the central and southern Pacific Ocean.

In Figs. 3 and 4 a portion of the earth's orbit in May and the moon's orbit in the same month, showing the projection on the plane of the ecliptic of the moon's path in space between the dates of the eclipses. The plot by the larger scale (Fig. 3) shows how points on the curve are obtained from the perigee. The dates May 8th and 11th, Greenwich noon. The moon's orbit radius is 49,900 miles parallel to the position

for each date in Fig. 2, and the curve is traced through the positions of the moon. The orbit of the moon at the date of the solar eclipse is also shown in the



The earth during the May eclipses.

curve of the moon's path (Fig. 4) there is no point of inflection, that is, it is always concave toward the sun. The earth moves about three and one-third times the diameter of the moon's orbit each day. Figs. 5 and 6 are projections of the earth on a plane

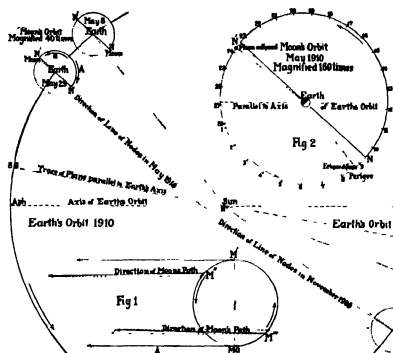
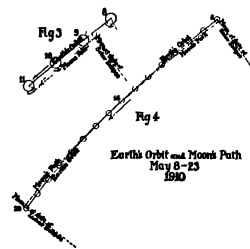


Fig. 1

Velocity and motion of earth and moon in their respective orbits. Smaller diagram shows the moon's orbit highly magnified.

which is parallel to its axis, and perpendicular to the plane of the ecliptic. In these projections between the vernal equinox and the summer solstice, more than one-half of the visible surface is illuminated. The



Projection of the moon's path on the plane of the ecliptic.

THE SOLAR AND LUNAR ECLIPSES IN MAY, 1910

arrows show the directions in which the eclipses will be observed.

## THE FINE HEAT OF THE FUTURE.

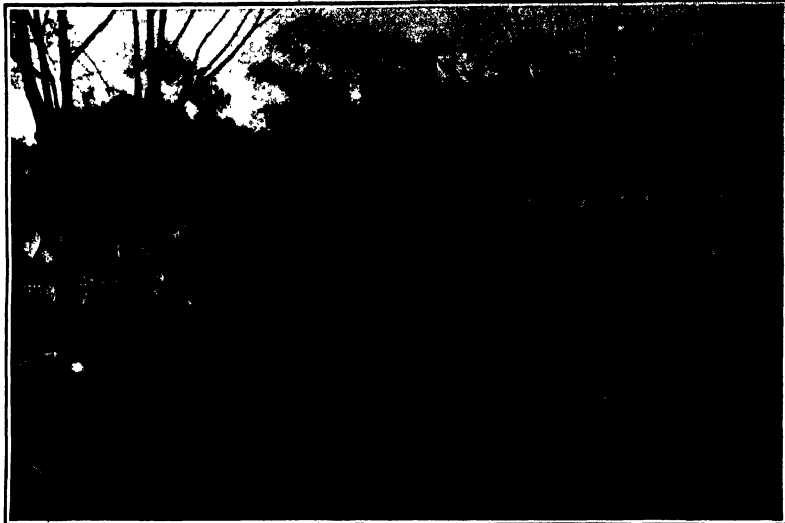
The principle of a mechanical delivery of mail has been established by the highly successful use of the pneumatic tube. This device is not the least conspicuous among the technical installations in the large

cities, and probably will be applied to a greatly ramified postal enterprise in the near future. The chief question that arises in consequence is whether a system of delivery similar to that of the pneumatic tube can be installed for greater distances and at the same time afford an enlarged rate of speed. At the present day pneumatic postal delivery is found only in the large cities, and being restricted to local business, asks a rather exorbitant price for such service. It is plain that the employment of such a system of distribution to distant points consequently among the cities also must give a wholly new aspect to the present systems of commercial intercourse. The first attempt made for the development of this idea were those of a company formed in Paris. A recent number of *Der Elektrotechnische Anzeiger* states minutely the technical formation and other progress of this enterprise which has reached the stage of thorough practicality, the result of the quite facile function of the experiment for the near future the Paris company intends to construct a tunnel to connect the larger cities of France through electric postal routes that shall not have frequent intermediate stations. The rate of speed proposed is 250 km. (155 miles) an hour. The capacity of the automatic express cars is to be 2 km. (26 en yds.) approximately and the weight of a load consisting of letters and other postal pieces of smaller dimensions shall not exceed 100 pounds.

The roadbed so to speak, on which such delivery shall be practiced, must of course be superadded distinctly from all other avenues of physical communication must be inaccessible to the public and this result can be procured only either through an elevated road or through a tunnel. For their experimental road the company has chosen the latter device and has built a tunnel which contains two rails, one above the other and of which the cross-section measures 8 sq. m. (97 sq. yds.) For the round trip beginning at intermediate stations branches and switches are provided. The function of the experimental road, achieved through an electric circuit, is such that the highest speed is reached very quickly. The cars have two wheels which run on the lower rail and also two rollers which follow the upper rail and hold the cars in position. The cars, moreover, have a middle compartment for mail, and other divisions for the motors and the device used as brakes. In front and behind the body of the cars is a conical point to diminish the resistance of the air. The frame of the cars is of iron and is electrically insulated from the rails by means of levers which swing around an axis perpendicular to the direction of travel. The current is applied through an upper conduit and the brakes are worked by compressed air as well as by the resistance of the air artificially increased by the wings attached to the sides of the front end of the cars. Three wheels stretch out to catch the air. This device can stop a car within one minute and in a distance of three kilometers after the current is interrupted but is used only as an accessory to prevent the too rapid destruction of wheels and rails through the excessive use of the rail brake, a source of most active friction.

A patent recently granted to Carl Parkes of New York, describes a method for making incandescent lamp metallic filaments which consists in producing on a conducting core a highly refractory coating by decomposing in a vacuum containing the core a highly refractory metal in the presence of vapors of pyrogallol, with final reduction in a vapor of hydrogen. In detail, the vapors of chloride of chromium and pyrogallol are introduced in a vacuum containing the conductor, which serves as a core which latter is then heated by the passage of a current the vapors are thereby decomposed, nascent carbon from the pyrogallol acting as a reagent on the chromium being formed. When the coating has thus been produced the vapors are removed and hydrogen gas introduced, whereby the deposition is reduced to metal.

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Some of the little craft that competed in the regatta.

## MODEL MOTOR-BOAT RACING

BY H. D. JONES

Model motor-boat racing, a new sport, has caught the popular fancy in England, and is being taken up in all the large cities. With a view to encouraging owners of models to enter their boats in the various competitions, challenge cups are offered by the clubs, and the conditions are made so broad that every designer feels that there is a chance to win a trophy. The prizes are awarded for speed, for workmanship, for the general appearance of the models, for the behavior of the machinery and the performance of the boats while on the water.

Not less than 5,000 spectators gathered recently at Chispen Common, one of the many open spaces in South London, to witness the regatta on the lake. The competition brought to the front some of the speediest racing models, some particularly fine ones of saloon steamers, liners, and torpedo boats, and other craft that were built for appearance rather than for racing.

The rules of racing were very simple. Each owner started his model boat to run a straight line over the course at the end of which officials appointed for the purpose waited to "catch" the racers and return them to their owners. After the models were once started no interference was permitted, the ability of the unguided boat to keep in a line for the finish of the course being part of the qualifications for prize winning.

Over a course measuring fifty-two yards, four boats were started in the first race, at which the accompanying pictures were taken. The best time was made by a steam hydroplane, the "Folly," in 9.14 seconds. "Bunny Jim," a gasoline craft, did the distance in 12.14 seconds, "Leda IV," a steamer, covered it in 15.43 seconds, and the fourth steamer, "Idunna," in 21 seconds.

In running of the final, best against boat in which the "Bunny Jim" scored three wins, the "Leda IV" two wins and the "Idunna" one win thus taking first second and third prizes in the order named. The prize was silver cups. The "Folly," the fastest boat in the eliminating trials, unfortunately ran off her course in the finale through her propeller fouling, and not being able to get going in the others, she had to give her opponents a walk-over.

Steering troubles were responsible for many awkward results in the other races. While hailed by the spectators as adding greatly to the enjoyment of the regatta, the failure of the little craft to keep their pointing and the perversity of the machinery when

left to its own resources proved sources of great disappointment to the owners of models that failed to keep a true headway. Boats that had run as true as a die on practice spins exhibited a tendency at the regatta to run anything but straight, or not to run at all. Gasoline motors refused to start, pumps gave out, boilers leaked and the models exhibited a crankiness that showed there is a lot of improvement necessary before this sport can be brought to perfection. But that is why the regattas are encouraged. The weak points of the models are strengthened, and motor-boat building is benefited as the result of the lessons learned from the eccentric performances of the models in the cup races.

The reliability of electric power in model regattas was demonstrated again and again, one finely modeled liner, the "Fairholm," although not built for speed, averting through the certainty of her performance and the untrustworthiness of some of her competitors. The surprise of the meeting was the performance of a finely modeled gasoline boat, the "Silver Dart." So fast was this entry, that the officials stationed to catch the models at the posts could not reach her when a little off the line, and she swerved away. Heading off down the pond, the little boat eluded a second attempt at seizure, and before she finally came to hand she had completed two round trips in brilliant if somewhat erratic fashion, to the admiration of the spectators.

The expediency of running the regattas on a circular instead of a straight course is also engaging the attention of the experts, the difficulty of handling and controlling the big fast boats being very evident. In sending these speedy craft on a straight run across a small pond serious accidents seem unavoidable. One beautiful model, the "Morvina II," after accomplishing several fine sprints, eluded the catchers, headed off on a course of her own, and wound up a series of mischievous gyrations by running full tilt into the bank, seriously damaging her hull and deranging the machinery. On a large lake, with a round course, such accidents, it is thought, might be avoided by a circle of catchers standing ready to keep the boats on their way until the distance is completed.

The model motor-boat regatta have afforded their existence by promoting improvement and bringing unknown designers and inventors of motor-boats and motor-boat machinery to the front. Instead of proving their boats in small tributaries on some out-of-the-way pond, a test that affords no possibility of com-

parison with the work of other designers, a number of men with kindred ambitions are brought together in these challenge meetings, and the test of the new boat's capabilities is thorough and convincing.

The sport has progressed so far that a national challenge cup is ready for the competing designers and model owners of the United Kingdom, and the various clubs are about to hold a general meeting to draw up rules for the government of the cup regattas. Naval men are especially interested in the exhibitions. At the regatta, which was the subject of the accompanying pictures, Lieutenant William Barrett, R.N., attended with a party of naval cadets and rendered many services to the committee.

### Cost of \$6,000 Candle-Power Street Lighting Plant, at Akron, O., Shows

As tungsten lamps require only 56 per cent as much energy as the carbon type for equal illumination, they have greatly reduced the cost per candle-power of incandescent street lighting.

What can be done with such lighting in a small town is illustrated by the following costs and operating expenses for a plant to generate and distribute tungsten street lamps of 30,000 candle-power total.

Unlike the merely nominal rating of arc lamps, which are a number of times their true candle-power, the tungsten lamps are rated at their actual mean candle-power in national directions.

The capacity of 30,000 candle-power is selected as nearly suited for street lighting in many medium and small towns, according to the density of illumination required. If lamps of 40 candle-power are selected the capacity named amounts to 500, and with lamps of 50 candle-power the 30,000 candle-power capacity will operate 250, the efficiency being the same in either case.

With 500 of the 40-candle lamps spaced 100 feet apart, or 250 of the 50-candle lamps 200 feet apart, 50,000 feet in length of streets may be lighted much better than is usual in small places, while ordinary results may be obtained by spacing the 40-candle lamps 200 feet apart or the 50-candle 400 feet apart from 100,000 feet, or 10 miles, of streets.

In the following estimates of the first cost and operating expense of a 30,000 candle-power plant, it is assumed that each part of the equipment, from the generators to the poles, is used merely for the purpose of street lighting, so that both the first and operating expenses for this lighting are included in the figures.



W. to construction with commercial service under like conditions.

The estimate of first cost covers a suitable plot of land, a station building of brick, concrete and steel, a storage tank to receive petroleum by the carload, a crude-oil engine and accessories, an electric generator with all necessary apparatus and instruments, pole lines on 50,000 feet of street, circuits on these poles for the distribution of tungsten lamps of 30,000 approx-

imately for each of the 40-candle lamps burning 4,000 hours, or to 9.11 cent per lamp hour of burning. As each 40-candle tungsten lamp operates with 50 watts, the expense of 9.11 cent per lamp hour, including interest, amounts to 6.3 cents per kilowatt hour consumed in the lamp.

The same conclusion is reached by considering that at the efficiency of 1.35 watts per candle-power the production of 30,000 candle-power requires the delivery of 25,000 watts at the lamps and this during 4,000 hours amounts to 100,000 kilowatt hours, which into the annual expense of \$6.20 gives 6.2 cents as before.

#### The Coalinga Oil District, California.

A report on the geology and oil resources of the Coalinga oil district in the western part of Fresno and Kings counties California by Ralph Arnold and Robert Anderson has just been pub-

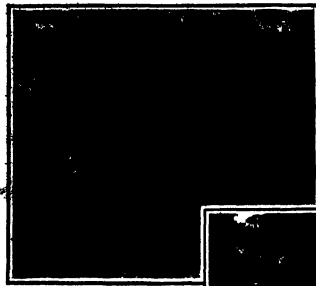
lished by the United States Geological Survey as Bulletin 398. The district described which is about 15 miles wide and 50 miles long stretches along the northeast base of the Diablo Range and is 11 miles long at its north end and a narrow strip of oil land along its south-western boundary.

The report describes the topography, geology, paleontology and oil in the (Coalinga district) which have been in part described in an earlier report published by the Survey but not now obtainable. The present report includes a more complete description of the district and many new maps sections and other illustrations besides a paper by Irving C. Allen on the chemical and physical properties of the oils. Many interesting points in connection with the history of the region in past geological ages are brought out and by means of careful descriptions of the formation a foundation is laid both for an accurate study of the occurrence of oil within this region and for the tracing of formations and oil horizons in other parts of California.

The report covers 184 pages and includes 52 plates and 1,307 figures. The characteristic fossils of the rocks of the region are fully illustrated. These afford a means of identifying particular strata from place to place and of determining the depth and position of the oil-bearing sands. The discussions of the oil ranges of the factors affecting the accumulation and the gravity of the oil of the relations of oil and water and of the origin of the oil are of broad general interest. The maps and diagrams and the detailed accounts of the geology of the wells and the character of their various products are of decidedly practical immediate value.

Bulletin 398 may be obtained without cost by applying to the Director of the Survey at Washington.

The current Supplement, 1916, contains articles of the current literature on the subject of electrochemical action and boiler corrosion.



View of the lamp, showing the start of a frame.

gates candle power in any desired class and fixtures on the poles for 500 of these lamps all erected and connected complete and ready to operate.

For this 30,000 candle-power plant as above with 500 lamp fixtures erected the total first cost is \$14,200 or 71 cents per candle-power capacity giving \$20.40 per 40-candle lamp. This cost of plant is based on present market prices of materials labor and apparatus and assumes ordinary conditions at the place of erection in places where prices and freight rates are higher than is usual in the eastern half of the United States an increase of cost would result.

Operating expenses of the above plant will vary with the number of lamps used even though the total candle-power remains at 30,000 because of the cost of lamp renewals and also with the hours that the lamps burn yearly.

All night and every night lighting to the extent of 4,000 hours per year is the most desirable and costs less per hour than lighting on moon and other so-called uses that run down as low as 1,500 hours yearly. But all night and every night lighting is gradually displacing the short hour service and the following estimate of operating expense is for lamps burning 4,000 hours per annum. With 500 street lamps of 40 candle each, making up the total 30,000 candle power capacity of the above plant and burning 4,000 hours the annual expense of operation would be \$6,200 including \$710 for interest on the first cost of \$14,200 at 5 per cent. This expense of \$6,200 covers all depreciation of the plant as well as the operating expenses that involve an immediate outlay of cash. Apart from the interest charge the annual expense of operating the 500 lamps of 40 candle-power each during 4,000 hours yearly is thus \$5,490. The total expense of \$6,200, including interest amounts to \$13.40

The "Minnehaha" being taken out for her trial.

lished by the United States Geological Survey as Bulletin 398.

The district described which is about 15 miles wide and 50 miles long stretches along the northeast base of the Diablo Range and is 11 miles long at its north end and a narrow strip of oil land along its south-western boundary.

The region includes about 500 producing wells which range in depth from 500 to 4,000 feet and penetrate from 20 to 300 feet of oil sand. The product ranges from a black oil of 15 deg Baumé to a green oil of 15 deg Baumé. The yield of single wells differs greatly ranging from 1 to 2,000 barrels a day.

The district is the leading producer in California and one of the most productive in the world. Its production in 1907 was 9,971,724 barrels. In 1910 it was 10,288,168 barrels, and in 1910 it was probably 11,000,000 barrels or more.

The total quantity of oil thus far taken from the ground in the district to the end of 1909 was about 63,000,000 barrels of 42 gallons each leaving available a vast store of oil which has been roughly estimated at 3,747,000,000 barrels. Even if this great quantity of oil is in the ground it is not possible to state whether all of it can ever be obtained.

Pipe lines connect the district with the seaboard at

The "Hazy Jim" makes a great race.

There is often much book thinking and loose talking concerning the stability of ocean-going steamers among those who ought to be better informed than commentators make sometimes seem to indicate. The matter is set right in an excellent article entitled "Stability of Ships" Edward Person gives some interesting facts concerning the stability of ships and the "Hazy Jim" is the title of an article which gives much useful information. Richard Thirk contributes an interesting account of the German army and shows how wonderful the military system of Germany is. John L. Cowan contributes a good article on the history of silk accompanied by many excellent photographs.

The newspapers recently published articles on the discovery of what was pronounced to be the greatest radium vein ever discovered in the United States in Lincoln County, Montana. Inquiry of the Geological Survey reveals the fact that there is very little if any truth in the statements made.



"Hordana," model of a steam motor boat.

"Fulchra," an electric motor boat.

"Belvedere II," a gasoline motor boat.

"Luna," a gasoline motor boat. Note the heavy wake.

MODEL MOTOR-BOAT RACING.



# An Automatic Projecting Lantern with Electrical Control

BY JACQUES BOYER

Hitherto it has been necessary for a lecturer using lantern illustrations to employ an assistant to operate the lantern and insert each slide at the proper moment. M. Moulin has invented an automatic lantern (Fig. 1) which dispenses with the services of the assistant. The ingenious mechanism which inserts and removes the slides can be adapted to any projecting lantern and enables the lecturer, by pressing an electric button on the platform, to show any picture at will. The invention will be especially serviceable to teachers, as is shown by Fig. 4. The picture can be thrown on the white wall of the class room, and if a powerful source of light is employed it will not be necessary to darken the room to an extent sufficient to prevent the taking of notes or the use of the blackboard.

The lantern slides are attached to a conveyor, composed of two chains connected by grooved cross-bars, which pass over a skeleton drum, formed of two iron disks connected by six rods. Each slide is firmly held between a fixed and a movable bar of the conveyor by

through the rotor *R*, which consequently, remains motionless. By pressing the key *a*, the current is sent through the motor circuit in the direction indicated by the arrows, and by releasing *a* and depressing *a'* the current and the rotation of the motor are reversed. The inductance lamps *L* and *L'* are bridged on the

of the motor and the slides in the reverse direction is similarly produced by partially depressing the key *b*.

## Tide at Panama.

The average time of high water at places on the Pacific coast of the Central American isthmus is three hours after the moon's meridian passage at Panama. The average time of high water at Colon is six minutes, and at Greytown one hour after the moon's meridian passage at Colon. In other words, as Colon and Panama are nearly on the same meridian, it may be stated that high tide will occur at the Pacific or Panama end of the Panama Canal, on the average two hours and fifty-four minutes after high tide at the Atlantic or Colon end, and high tide will occur at the Pacific or Brito end of the Nicaragua Canal two hours after high tide at the Atlantic or Greytown end.

The level of mean tide is practically the same at both ends of both of the seaport canal routes, but at Panama the tide ranges from 10 feet above to 10 feet below mean sea level, while at Colon it only ranges from 6 or 8 inches above to 6 or 8 inches below

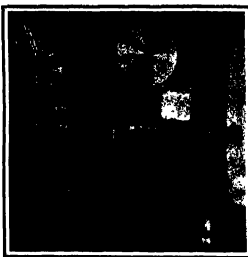


Fig. 1.—An automatic projecting lantern.

keys to diminish sparking, but they also serve another useful purpose. When the key *a* is partially depressed, so that it does not touch either contact, the rotor circuit is completed through the lamp *L*, which greatly increases the resistance of the circuit, and the current flowing through the rotor is further diminished by more than one-half by the shunt effect of the lamp *L'*. Hence, the motor turns so slowly that it is an easy matter to stop the desired slide exactly in front of the lens, by releasing the key *a* at the proper moment. Neither of these effects is produced when the key *a* is fully depressed, because the lamp *L* is then short-circuited by the key and the resistance of the circuit is thus made so small that very little current is diverted through the other lamp. A slow movement

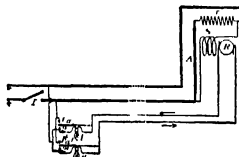


Fig. 2.—Electric wiring for automatic projector.

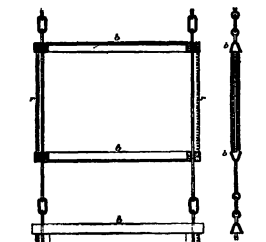


Fig. 3.—Front and side views of chains carrying slide holders.

the tension of the spring *r* (Fig. 2). The drum is driven by a small electric motor, by means of a thin goat screw, and, as it rotates, the slides are brought successively opposite the projecting lens. In this operation the flexible conveyor carrying the slides is taken up from a box behind the drum and delivered to a receiving box beneath the lantern.

The motor is shunt wound, so that it can be reversed by reversing the current in the armature coils. In this way a slide which has already passed the lens can be brought back and projected again. If desired, the electrical connections by means of which the apparatus is controlled are shown diagrammatically in Fig. 3. Beneath the lecture table is a switch *L*, the closure of which sends a current through the electric arc *A* of the projecting lantern, and also through the field coils *S* of the motor, which are connected in parallel with the circuit containing the key and its rheostat. On the table are two double contact keys *a* and *a'*. The upper contacts of these keys, *1* and *1'*, are connected with one wire of the general circuit, the lower contacts, *2* and *2'*, are connected with the other wire, and the fixed ends of the keys are connected, respectively, with the two brushes of the commutator attached to the rotor or armature *R* of the electric motor. Hence, when either key is depressed, both brushes are in connection with the same main wire, and no current flows

mean sea level, and at Brito or San Juan del Sur the tide ranges in the extreme from 4 feet below to 5 feet below mean sea level, while at Greytown it ranges less than 5 inches above and below mean sea level.

Thus with a sea-level canal built along either the Nicaragua or the Panama route, it would be through currents from the Pacific to the Atlantic at the time of high tide at the Pacific terminal, and from the Atlantic to the Pacific at the time of low tide at the Pacific terminal.

In answer to the specific question: Assuming that the Pacific tide rises about 8 feet, suppose it to be high tide at San Juan del Sur, Nicaragua, at noon stand and time, what would be the approximate difference in level of the Atlantic at the same time say at Greytown Nicaragua? It may be stated that at the time of high tide at San Juan del Sur it is two hours after high tide at Greytown, and if the assumed rise of 8 feet at San Juan del Sur is above mean sea level the difference in level between the two ends of the canal would be about 7½ feet.

To secure accurate information with reference to the weather conditions Dr. William Shaw, Director of the Meteorological Office of Great Britain, has been traveling in western Canada with reference to the alleged general changes in the climate owing to the settlement of the country. Dr. Shaw is quoted as stating that he has observed that the people of all localities under the impression that the climate of their district is undergoing a change. The statistics do not, however, bear out this idea. There are oscillations but no permanent changes in the climate.

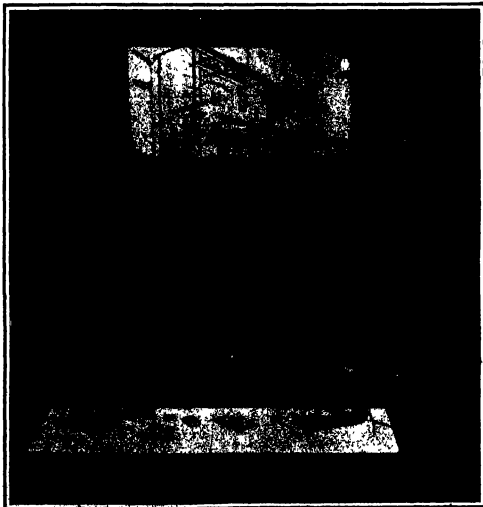


Fig. 4.—A lecture illustrated by the automatic projector, controlled by the lecturer himself.

AN IMPROVED APPARATUS FOR PROJECTING PICTURES.

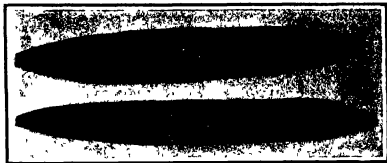
## INSECT PESTS IN HOUSE AND STORE

BY HAROLD BASTIN

Insects as a class feed literally upon anything and everything from which nourishment may be extracted by dist of strong jaws harked up by equally strong digestions. A substance may be "bone dry, almost as hard as rock and in every way uninviting, yet so long as its origin is traceable to the animal or vegetable kingdom at least one insect probably very many kinds will find in it the wherewithal of existence. And because they are omnivorous in the fullest sense of the word, insects rank as the worst pests with which civilized man has to contend whether his calling be that of a producer or a disseminator of the necessities and luxuries of life. Much has been written respecting the depredations of insects. Everyone will probably know something at least of the tax which has been imposed upon the exporter of this country by such insects as the Colorado beetle and the "beale" of the orange groves. But it is with certain pests which while less devastating in their activities, affect chiefly the individual comfort of our readers that the writer proposes briefly to deal in this place. Probably few people realize what a number of insect pests are to be found in the ordinary house or larder. In some penetrate the very fabric or our dwelling places—that is, so far as the woodwork is concerned. They burrow into our furniture and our books, and consume by slow degrees the very carpets on our floors and the clothing in our closets and drawers.

Among the most widely distributed of these domestic pests are certain tiny beetles of the genus *Anobium*. Their ancestral home was in the woods and lanes where they are still abundantly represented, frequenting the dead branches of trees and shrubs. They have, however, forced an entry into almost every old house in the land, as well as into many a modern dwelling, where they accomplish considerable mischief by boring into and consuming furniture, beams and woodwork in general. This successful assault of our houses must have been accomplished many centuries ago, for one of the commonest species was dubbed "don-alivers" by the old materials and is so called at the present day. This insect is barely one-sixth of an inch in length, gray brown in color, cylindrical in shape, with its head hidden in, or overhanging by, the thorax. The tiny grubs are sub-bodied, with hard heads and—as their work bears witness—powerful jaws. It is not difficult to detect the presence of these grubs in woodwork. Suppose that you have a valuable "Chippendale" chair, and that you notice beneath it upon the floor, certain little heaps of yellowish dust. Inspection of the chair itself reveals minute holes

scattered about the surface of the woodwork—such as though the piece of furniture had been "peppered" from a distance with a charge of dust-shot. These signs are indisputable evidence that your chair is beetle-riddled, and unless by some means you can



Figures damaged by the tobacco beetle.

contrive to dislodge the pests, they will slowly but surely reduce the woodwork to dust and chips. When once a piece of furniture is assailed by *Anobium*, it is a very difficult matter to eradicate the pest. Several methods have been suggested. One plan is to place the piece of furniture in a refrigerating chamber

temperature be kept a little above that of freezing water, not a single beetle will be alive when the freezing is over. Often it would be impossible to adopt either of these methods, and in such cases the best plan is first to remove the pieces of furniture to a very hot room for some hours, then to inject, by means of a very fine-nozzled syringe, a poisonous liquid—such as a mixture of cyanide of potassium and kerosene—as many of the tiny "worm holes" as can be found on the surface. Then remove the furniture at once to a cold place, when the sudden change of temperature will cause the poisonous fumes to be drawn into the innermost recesses of the burrows. Finally, the holes on the surface should be stopped up with paraffin wax.

The various species of *Anobium*, and their bigger relatives of the genus *Xestobium*, by no means confine their attacks to furniture. The whole woodwork of old houses has been so completely riddled by their borings as to render the structures unsafe. Indeed, a beam that has been tenanted by these insects for a number of years is little better than an outer shell containing a mass of wood-dust. A photograph showing damage done to woodwork is here reproduced. *Xestobium*, by the way, is the common "death-watch," while *Anobium* also is in the habit of making a tapping sound. The nocturnal tapping of these insects, distinctly audible in a room where there is an otherwise complete absence of noise, has for many centuries been regarded by the superstitious as a warning of the approach of death. This uncanny interpretation of a mysterious sound is scarcely surprising when we remember that only in recent years have naturalists discovered its true cause. The little beetle has been found in some secluded spot, jerking its hard head at regular intervals upon the surface of the wood beneath it. So far as can be told, its rattlings constitute a kind of courtship ritual. Obviously they have no connection with the latter end of mankind. So that the old "death-watch" theory has been exploded!

While speaking of these beetles, the writer may mention another insect known as the "book-borer." It is very minute, soft, and wingless. Its color is that of pale amber, while it is not distantly related to the "white ants" of tropical countries. *Atripars decaevoria*, to give the book borer its scientific name, is very common in old houses, especially if they are damp. As its popular name indicates, it may be found among old books and manuscripts, where it feeds as burrows upon the surface of the paper. It has also been known to damage collections of dried plants and in-

(Continued on page 345.)



Dust from the borings of the bark-eater on a bottle-neck.



Wine bottle cork showing the borings of the bark-eater.

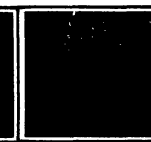
for a week or two, and then attempt to kill the beetles and their grubs by cold. It is somewhat doubtful, however, whether even this severe ordeal will destroy all the beetles. Another way, and probably a more effectual one, is to place the furniture—first taking it to pieces if necessary—in a hot chamber or oven, and there bake it for twenty-four hours or more. If the



To apple (at its base) which has been the home of a cherry-tree in the middle of the century.



Ginger root attacked by the pest beetle.



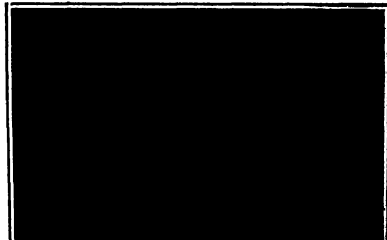
Cigarettes damaged by the tobacco beetle.



A book showing the ravages of the book-borer.



Old zinc coffin bears showing the borings of a beetle.



Hemlock attacked by the pine beetle. INSECT PESTS IN HOUSE AND STORE.



Grub of which (supposedly) which have been the cause of the decay of the wood.



**FIRE-PROOF CONSTRUCTION AND OUR AERIAL FIRE LOOM**

It is estimated that our annual fire loss, and the sum expended for fire protection, etc., represent an annual sum that is approximately equal to the cost of building the Panama Canal. The public is awakening to the economic significance of this fact, and business men generally are beginning to realize that the best way to guard themselves against the fire peril is, not so much to institute elaborate means for extinguishing fires and burden themselves with heavy insurance, as to so erect their buildings that it will be difficult for a serious fire to originate, and, if it does, impossible for it to obtain a serious hold upon the building. The growth in favor of fireproof construction has been indirectly stimulated by the growing price of lumber, the advance having been so great that for some forms of construction there is but little extra initial cost involved in putting up strictly fireproof construction. Indeed, from an investment standpoint it can be demonstrated that the fireproof building is the only really economical building. The saving in the cost of insurance, reduction in depreciation charges, the guarantee against interruption of business by fire, combine to make an unvarnished building the cheapest in the long run.

The phenomenal development in reinforced concrete construction must be regarded as one of the most significant movements in the broad field of architecture and engineering. It is not too much to claim that the lion's share of improvements in this direction is to be credited to American engineers. The expert mental work on sample structural members, and especially upon beams and columns, has led to a pretty thorough knowledge of the true principles of construction to be adopted for reinforced concrete when used in such members, and the introduction of a reinforcement designed to adequately take up the shearing strains, as supplied for instance in the Kahn system, has made it possible to produce beams, struts, etc., and other members subject to bending

both the ribs and the lath being made from the same sort of steel. The object of the ribs is to give sufficient stiffness and rigidity to the lath, so that when used in walls and partitions no slabs, such as are required by the ordinary plain lath, will be necessary. When it is used as reinforcement for floor and roof slabs, no wood centering or falsework is required, for the ribs give the required stiffness. If this sheathing is used for partitions, it is merely necessary to provide a fastening at the floor and the ceiling. The sheets are then set in place and the plaster applied directly to both sides.

For sidings of factories and similar one and two-story buildings, a framework of steel or concrete is



Applying the plaster to a rib-stiffened steel lath and plaster partition.



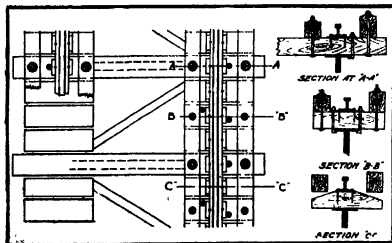
Building a roof of reinforced concrete construction.

**FIRE-PROOF CONSTRUCTION**

provided to which the sheets are attached. Lines of supports are provided, about six feet apart, and the 1½" ribs are properly fastened to them. The frame work is similar to that which would be provided where the ordinary wood sheathing or corrugated iron is used, except that the ribs can be placed a greater distance apart. When the steel has been properly placed a special stucco plaster is applied in two coats. Where the system is used in connection with floors and roofs, supports are ordinarily provided about five feet apart. The sheets are laid directly over the supports with the lath face downward. All that is necessary to complete the work is to put in the concrete on the upper side of the sheets to the required thickness. Only a sufficient amount of concrete will flow through to give a thorough clinch on the steel. This leaves a roughened surface on the underside, which provides a satisfactory key for the plaster applied on the ceiling below. By use of reinforcing materials similar to this, nearly every type of building no matter how small, may be built fireproof at a cost very little greater than the ordinary wood framing.

**IMPROVED ELEVATED RAILWAY CONSTRUCTION**

The combination cross tie and "block" in construction shown in the accompanying drawing has for its object to reduce the noise of elevated railroads and increase the light to the street below. An open construction is provided so that the rails have an almost continuous support which tends to absorb and stop the vibration sent out from the rails. Most of the noise from a train on an elevated structure is due to the passage of the wheels over the rail joints and there is no doubt that this noise is intensified by the inefficient support of the rails at such points. Should the three "block" ties be removed, letting the rail free of support, and a wheel be rolled over the rail, the vibrating noise would be very great. By fastening "block" ties between, this noise is decreased in proportion to the number of the inserted until when a continuous support is made the noise is reduced to a minimum. It is but natural for engineers to copy precedents, and for this reason the usual system of cross ties, which, by a process of evolution, has been found most satisfactory for a road constructed on the ground has been adopted for elevated railroads, with the result that an excessive amount of noise is produced whenever a train passes over the rails, and the street is unnecessarily darkened by the multiplicity of cross ties. This proposed system of building an elevated railroad has been suggested by Mr. Carl R. Kuhn, of 1845 Columbia Avenue, Chicago, Ill.



IMPROVED ELEVATED RAILWAY CONSTRUCTION

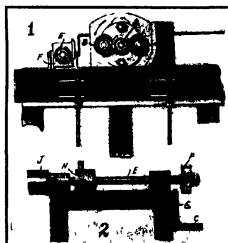
strengthen, whose strength can be determined with dependable accuracy.

Side by side with the development of reinforced concrete members, such as are suitable to what might be called the skeleton frame of concrete building, much experimental work has been done in producing a suitable form of walling or paneling, for filling in the broad open surface represented by the wall against the floor and the roofing. In the accompanying illustrations we show what is known as the Hy-Rib method of steel sheathing, which is an interesting new development along this line. It consists of a special steel lath stiffened by rigid high ribs,

**ATTACHMENT FOR WOODWORKING MACHINES**

The accompanying engraving illustrates an attachment for woodworking machines generally known as routers or slickers used in wash and door factories for cutting rabbets and moldings in the parts to receive the panels. When a door is to be provided with a pane of glass, it is usually necessary to cut away the molding or rabbet at one side so that the glass can be inserted when the door is completed and be held in position in the usual manner by means of putty. In order to avoid a second operation to cut away the molding for this purpose the auxiliary cutter shown in this engraving is employed in the process. The auxiliary cutter is arranged to be moved axially into and

out of operative position, so that when it is no longer desired to cut away the molding the operation of the auxiliary cutter can be stopped. In Fig. 1, which shows a front view of the machine, the main shaft is shown at A and mounted upon it is the main cutter head, provided with the cutters B which form the rabbet and molding immediately in front of the cutter head is a table C on which the work is supported and a pair of guides D for holding the work in position. The auxiliary cutter E is mounted on a shaft F. It consists of a pair of square cutters and is provided with a pair of blades P. Fig. 2 shows a side view of the auxiliary cutter moved to its operative position so that it clears the work Q supported on the table C. The shaft of the auxiliary cutter is provided with a yoke and collar H by which it may be moved axially so as to bring the cutter in engagement with the



ATTACHMENT FOR WOODWORKING MACHINES

work G. The driving pulley of the shaft E is shown at J. The inventor of this attachment is Mr. A. G. Tipsett of 1281 Franklin Avenue, Atlanta, Georgia.

**SHAFT COUPLING**

Pictured in the accompanying engraving is an improved coupling of the type adapted for connecting the abutting ends of two revolvable shafts. Briefly the device consists of two sleeves, each sleeve having to hold the key in place while a second locking key serves to retain the sleeve in position over the two shafts. As shown more clearly in the sectional view Fig. 2 and in Fig. 5, a keyway is formed in each shaft, and a pit or recess is formed at the end of the keyway. The shafts are turned so that the two keyways are in alignment and then a key of the form shown in Fig. 4, and indicated at A in Fig. 2, is fitted into the keyway. The key is provided with lugs at the end adapted to fit into the pits of the keyways. Before bringing the shafts together, a sleeve C is fitted over one of them. This sleeve, as shown in the cross-sectional view, Fig. 1, is forced with a keyway adapted to fit over the key A when it is moved over the abutting ends of the shafts. To hold the sleeve in position, the key B is used. This key is into an exterior keyway in the sleeve C and is provided with a pair of lugs E which pass through the sleeve and into the two shafts. A screw F serves to hold the key D in the sleeve C. In this manner the two shafts are rigidly connected. Owing to the large

diameter and massive construction of the above *C* and owing to the manner in which the two keys are interlocked the coupling has a strength equal to that of any portion of either shaft. With the shafts as coupled they are in line with each other and it is impossible to turn on shaft relatively to the other as they are firmly united to transmit them to a considerable extent. As yet no one on this coupling has



A STEREO SHAFT COUPLING

Invented by Mr. William F. Baum of 2302 Oxford Street, Philadelphia, Pa.

#### A NEW SYSTEM FOR HIGH TENSION INSULATION

A patent recently issued to Leon Stubbings of Brooklyn, N. Y., covers a novel and improved system of insulation for high potential electric conductors to be used in various relations and for various purposes such as power transmission and for guy wires or cables employed as stays for towers or poles and other supports used in electric telegraphy and telephony as well as in various commercial work. It makes a radical departure in the development of insulator systems.

The system comprehends a series of insulators preferably of a thin type and a series of other insulators of a rod type; the thin type insulators being all united with the rod type insulators and together therewith forming a reliable chain of parts which may be extended indefinitely.

The under surface of the thin type insulators will be of course at all times comparatively dry. Each thin type insulator acts like an umbrella covering the upper end of the rod type insulator below it and connected therewith thereby.

By keeping it dry under the most unfavorable conditions (as for instance, when all the insulators are subjected to the action of a diving rain) beneath the group of insulators means that all ways afford adequate insulation for all practical purposes.

This system will practically prevent leakage and undesirable grounding of the conductors either from supports or from supports.

In this system the various parts may be readily detached and replaced by other parts and the total number of parts may be increased or diminished at will.

after the original structure is built this feature being especially important in instances where after the installation of a pole for the voltage is to be increased. Not the least important feature of the system is the flexibility of the insulator chain and that the structure as a whole when it is erected may be used in any position thereby insuring a safe and reliable structure in all of its parts as well as in its entirety from the effects of winds and about accidental strains usually so destructive to mechanism of this kind.

#### SIMPLE LETTER SCALE

An inventor has recently struck upon the simple idea of using coils to weigh letters, so that the value of the coils will represent the value of the stamp that must be applied to the letter. A simple beam scale is used provided at one end with a clip for holding the letter and at the other end with a clip for holding the coils. If the scale is to be used for first-class mail the rates for which are two cents an ounce the fulcrum of the scale is so placed that a letter weighing an ounce would be just counterbalanced by two one-cent coils in the other clip. As shown in our illustration the scale beam is made of sheet metal bent to channel form with the ends turned over and terminating in knifed edges pivoted on which the letter and coil clips are suspended. A detail of one of these clips is shown in Fig. 2. It is made of a single piece of metal bent to form two jaws which may be roughened or crimped to provide a better gripping surface. At the upper end of the clip are two ears bent upward and provided with apertures to receive the pivots of the scale beam. A ball-shaped handle serves as a fulcrum for the scale. In order to adjust the scale accurately a screw hole is provided on the under side of the scale beam. The scale beam is formed of two ears which pass through a slot in the pole and are bent back upon it to hold it in place as indicated in Fig. 3. The pole may be delicately adjusted to bring the scale to a correct balance. The inventor of this ingenious letter scale is Mr. Willis J. Flak, of Elk Point, South Dakota.

#### INLET VALVE AND SCREEN FOR PUMPS

The device which is illustrated in the accompanying engraving is adapted particularly for use in con-



SIMPLE LETTER SCALE

nection with water pumps in boats the object being to strain the water that is drawn in by the pump. The structure is provided with a special attachment whereby it may be cleaned instantly while the valve is in service. The body of the valve is indicated at A in the illustrations and is provided with a branch B whereby it may be connected with the pump. The lower portion of the body is enlarged to form a valve cage C. Screwed to the cage is an extension member D which at its lower end is formed with a screen E. A valve seat plate F is secured in the chamber G and upon it rests the valve G. In the top of the chamber G a passage H is provided to limit the upward lift of the valve G. Passing centrally through the valve and casing is a rod J which at its lower end is fitted with a pair of blades A. These are adapted to be pressed against the outer



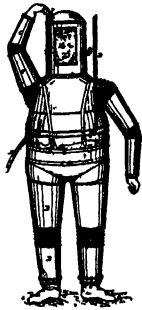
INLET VALVE AND SCREEN FOR PUMPS

surface of the screen H under tension of a coil spring L. By rotating the rod J the blades K are caused to scrape the screen H, and thus remove any dirt that might clog the openings of the screen. Mr. O. H. Laffman, of Potomac, Idaho, has just secured a patent on this improved inlet valve and screen.

#### THE INVENTOR OF SUBMERSIBLE ARMOR

Among pioneer inventors to whom the diving drum in its present perfected form owes so much, was William Hannan Taylor. The present state of this armor is the result of his many attempts were so permeated by the Taylor patent of June 20th 1893 (No. 576) in which the essential feature was the valve allowing the emission of compressed air without an influx of water. From one to this time there had been the diving chest and the diving bell of which the latter introduced by Simon in 1778 was the first of the modern practical device for submarine exploration. The diving bell has been developed along side of the diving drum and is still in use.

The general appearance of Taylor's diving armor was like that of a knight's suit of mail except for a prominent bulge in the body piece from the surface and penetrating the body piece at the bulge supplied the fresh air while a short pipe entered the body piece on the other side and was provided with a valve which carried off the exhaust. Although diving armor has now reached its perfected state this valve has never been materially improved upon. The accompanying illustration is reproduced from Mr. Taylor's patent.



FIRST DIVING ARMOR

A large pipe coming from the surface and penetrating the body piece at the bulge supplied the fresh air while a short pipe entered the body piece on the other side and was provided with a valve which carried off the exhaust. Although diving armor has now reached its perfected state this valve has never been materially improved upon. The accompanying illustration is reproduced from Mr. Taylor's patent.

#### AN IMPROVED TOBACCO PIPE

The principal objection to a tobacco pipe as every smoker knows lies in the fact that nicotine accumulates to such an extent as to partially clog the stem and detached particles of the disintegrating food are apt to be drawn into the mouth. The saliva is also apt to flow into the stem and collect there. To obviate these disagreeable features of the ordinary stem, many inventions have been made designed to trap the saliva and the nicotine. The accompanying engraving illustrates one of the latest inventions along this line. The pipe bowl is provided with two openings one above the other and these are adapted to communicate with two channels in the stem. The stem is provided with a core piece in which the channels are formed. The core is indicated in the cross-sectional view Fig. 2 and is shown in full in the large view Fig. 1. The upper channel extends the full length of the core and through this the smoke is drawn. Near the lower end of the stem the core is provided with several ducts extending downwardly and rearwardly to the lower channel of the core so that any nicotine or solid and liquid particles drawn up with the smoke will be trapped by the ducts and will soon



AN IMPROVED TOBACCO PIPE

mutate in the lower channel. It will be observed that the lower channel does not extend the full length of the core, so that it is impossible to draw any of the nicotine into the mouth. At the opposite end of the core a chamber is formed in the bottom of the core piece which communicates with the smoke channel near the mouthpiece. This serves to trap the saliva which may enter the smoke channel. The stem of the pipe is jointed near the center so that the entire section may be removed and the core piece withdrawn for the purpose of cleaning it. The inventor of this improved pipe is Mr. George W. Bradley, of 918 Beech Avenue, Spokane, Wash.







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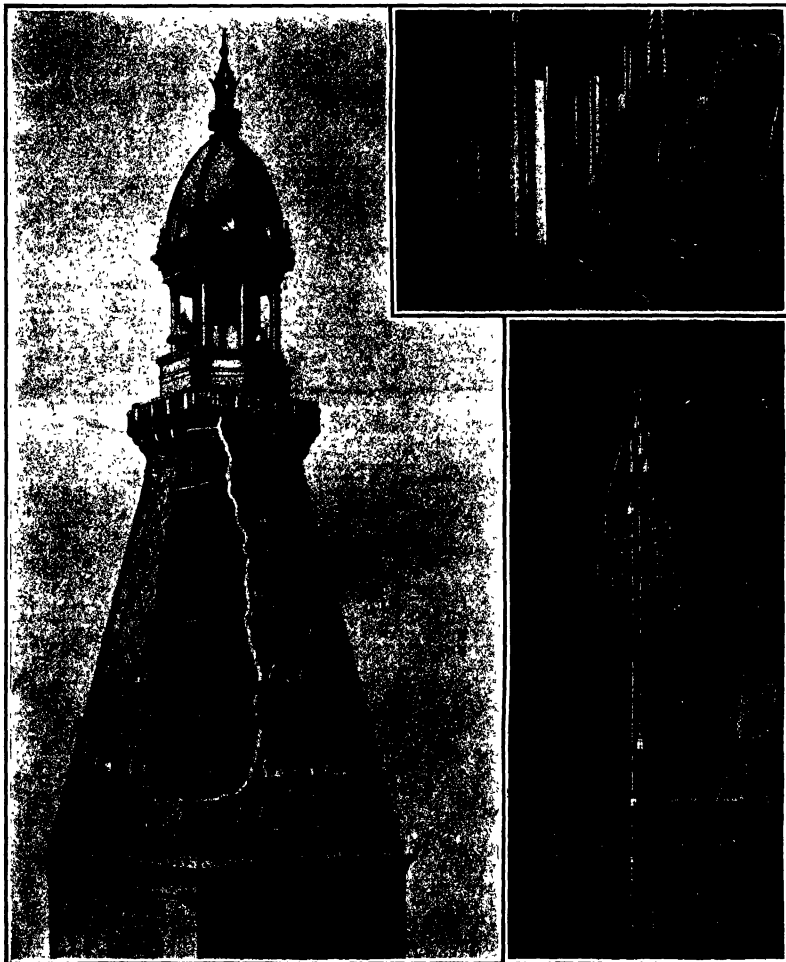
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A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS

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NEW YORK, APRIL 30, 1910

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The upper ends of the elevator shafts.

Motors installed at top of tower.

Position of elevators in shafts.

HOW THE PROBLEM OF INSTALLING THE ELEVATORS OF THE METROPOLITAN TOWER WAS SOLVED.—[See page 545.]



## ELECTRICITY.

\_\_\_\_\_



Demonstration train at a way station in California.

In response to an urgent request from leading dairy interests in Southern California, Prof. Leroy Anderson, head of the dairy department of the California College of Agriculture, has just made an examination of the milk conditions in that part of the State.

Prof. Anderson says that in consultation with the dairymen, it was decided to inaugurate a general policy of education upon the subject. In his opinion, the reform of many conditions now undesirable in the methods of producing milk, can better be reached through the commercial aspect of the business and through the education of the producer and the consumer than through drastic and radical legislation.

He says that he finds the conditions under which milk is produced about Los Angeles are not materially different from conditions in other populous centers, except that nature is possibly kinder in granting more sunshine and less rain and a more porous soil, all of which tend toward a water cleanliness.

What advice he has to offer, therefore, is applicable to all parts of California. He hopes especially that the man who is producing and selling directly to consumers in the smaller towns and cities, whether he has one cow or more, may receive an incentive to have better cows and keep them in a clean and a healthy condition.

In cities like Los Angeles and San Francisco, he says, where large wholesalers act as distributing agencies between the producer and the consumer and pasteurize all the milk, some of the dangers that might result from disease of the cow and uncleanliness are obviated.

"It does not have a pretty sound," continues the professor, "to say that lack of care on the part of the producers is partly the reason for the expensive pasteurization which the wholesalers now give to milk."

"Pasteurization, however, is one of the advance steps toward a healthier race, and some day this process will give way to such clean methods of producing milk that it will not be necessary. That is the goal toward which we are all striving."

"It costs money to produce clean milk, which cost must be met by a higher selling price or by more profitable cows, or both. The cow is especially in our mind just now, and we call the reader's attention to records taken from different sources to show by actual figures how cows vary in returns to their owners from similar outlay for food and care."

Prof. Anderson then refers to the subject of proper stables and corrals for dairy cows and says:

"The great thing to be desired is either, is that there should be easy means of keeping clean and then keep them clean. This is the chief reason for using concrete in stable floors. It does not decay and then cause foul odors, and it can be hosed down with water and swept

in a few moments, so that no dirt remains. Some dairymen object to cows standing on concrete, but in California, where the cows are in only for feeding and milking, they suffer no injury.

"Occasionally a very good stable is constructed where the cattle stand, which portion is made of plank. This works well from a sanitary point, if the planks are water-tight or are underlaid with a water-tight substance so that the soil under the planks cannot become saturated.

"A milking stable is absolutely essential to the production of clean milk. Milking in the corral is an abomination, either in winter or in summer. In winter, during the rainy season, it is not uncommon to see both cow and milker wading nearly to the knees in mud, when of necessity the milk must become the depository for some of the mud.

"In summer, when the corral dust may be from one to four inches deep, the condition is even worse. The dust is raised with any slight breeze or with every movement of man or beast, and even more dirt finds its way into the milk than during the time of rain and mud. Thus the cows must be provided with some stable which is dry and clean, and where they can be held for milking.

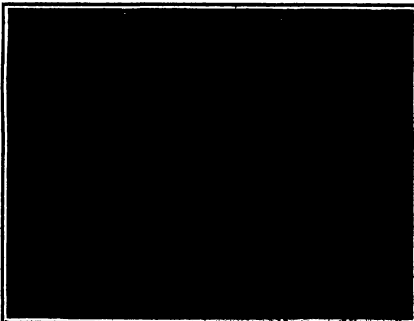
"The stable needs not be expensive. On the contrary, it may be very simple, and the less lumber in it the better so long as the frame is sufficiently strong. It should permit the entrance of an abundance of direct sunlight and have enough openings to give constant ventilation. Large louvers in the roof are excellent for ventilation and also admit light, but not direct sunrays."

Salol Lintment for Burns.—Salol, 10 parts; olive oil, 60 parts; lime water, 80 parts.

#### Bread Under the Microscope.

Bread, like milk, is one of the most general articles of food, and as such is subjected to the most frequent adulteration, and unfortunately it happens that such a fraud cannot always be detected with ease. The experts who have given special attention to this kind of adulteration agree in the statement that under the influence of the preparation of bread the grains of four undergo certain changes in their outer appearance that render them much less distinguishable. In a most preciser article recently published in *Los Angeles de la Chimie Analytique*, Eugène Collin recounts the results of his tireless examination of pure bread and adulterated bread. In the course of his laudable endeavor, it seems, he found himself able to determine with plausible exactness the quantity of pure flour in baked bread, whether the bread subjected to microscopical examination was old and hard or fresh. His procedure was to soften a crumb of bread with as little water as possible and knead it persistently with forefinger and thumb over a fine sieve resting on a vessel that should receive the dripping water. The mass is treated in this manner until the water comes to look darkened. A powdery mass then remains on the sieve, which is deposited on the crystal of a watch, combined with a trifle of glycerine, and is then set aside for further examination. Besides, to the water in the vessel is given an opportunity to clear itself, and it is then decanted so carefully that the sediment is not disturbed. The result of such treatment is that from the deposit on the sieve and that in the vessel the true composition of the bread can be ascertained.

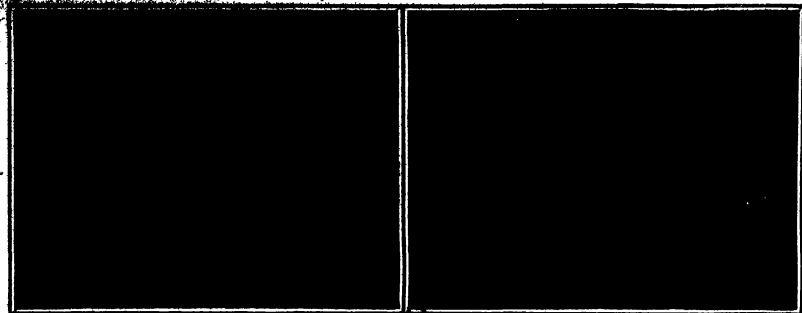
Bread made from pure flour leaves only an imperceptible quantity of starch on the sieve. On the other hand the greater part of the gluten is found on it and forms a net of irregular meshes and shows some resemblance to vegetable tissue. In consequence of the ease with which its presence in the bread is ascertained, the gluten is especially important for microscopical examination. In the same deposit the microscope showed numerous particles of starch, which during the preparation of the bread changed their ordinary form or were severed to explosion. Still there is a rather considerable number of them that have escaped this influence and are easily recognized from their size, color, form, and the presence of the navel. These statements regard wheat bread only. The result when rye bread passes through the same procedure is that the deposit on the sieve consists of gluten only, and therefore proportionate in a mixture of both kinds of bread can be ascertained with a large degree of exactness under the microscope. Particularly, however, in this case through a test of the percentage of flour, shows the greater of starch of wheat and of rye, and distinguishes from one another the different kinds of wheat that have been used.



Concrete in agricultural and horticultural establishments.

A RAILWAY ENGINE WITH TRAINS.





Dairy exhibit, agricultural demonstration train.

Cereal exhibit, agricultural demonstration train.

## A RAILWAY SCHOOL FOR FARMERS.

placenta. The most resemblance to those is shown by the grains of barley, the addition of which is ascertained with a satisfactory degree of certainty from the precipitate on the sieve. A quite customary adulteration of bread is affected with rice flour, which always

falls to escape the scrutiny of the microscope when this is invoked, for the grains of starch of rice are always left in great number on the sieve and are more easily recognized because during the preparation of bread they suffer less change. This result of M. Col

lin's investigation is extraordinarily important, for the addition of rice flour to wheat flour or to rye flour has begun to be a veritable torment. Besides, certain kinds of corn meal have been misused in the same way, though easily detected by the microscope

## A REAPER BOAT

BY THE PARIS CORRESPONDENT OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

A French constructor, A. Amiot, has brought out a type of boat combined with a set of cutting blades, which is designed for use in cutting of aquatic growths in ponds or artificial lakes, mill races and various water courses. Such operations are often necessary where the bottom of a pond or water course becomes obstructed by the thick growth of aquatic plants, but where it is required to be carried out by hand labor it becomes a difficult and also an expensive matter, especially where a large area has to be dealt with. M. Amiot's device overcomes the difficulty by using an internal combustion motor mounted on a boat, and the motor serves to drive a set of cutting blades, which are designed somewhat after the fashion of reaper blades and adapted in their form so as to carry out the cutting of the plants under water in the best manner. The boat is rather narrow, and flat-bottomed, being much narrowed at the front and the rear. In the front is carried a paddle wheel, which is run by a gasoline motor, which drives the boat at a slow speed. Its total length is about 20 feet.

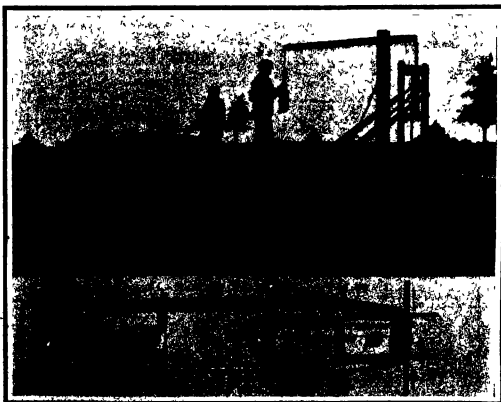
The cutting bars are mounted at the lower end of a vertical frame, which is held at the rear end of the boat, and these extend transversely across the bottom of the frame so as to lie at a point near the bottom of the water course or pond and to cut off the plants as the boat advances. Such bars are made in different lengths and also at different curvatures so as to be adapted for flat bottoms or for beds of streams of different forces and sizes. The bars are usually from 6 to 12 feet in length, and are designed to cut off a considerable area at a time. This gives the present system a great advantage in being able to cover a large surface within a short time and at a comparatively small cost. As will be observed in our engraving, the frame, which is made up of two vertical angle iron beams in the proper way, is suspended from the side of the boat, and

being swung upon the end of the lever, which is observed at the upper part, and this lever is pivoted in an upright. By means of the counterweight at the end of the lever, the entire frame can be raised and lowered, and this gives the adjustment of the cutting bars at any desired height in a convenient way. The gasoline motor is placed at the other end of the boat, and there is a belt transmission running to the rear end, which operates the pulley placed in the upper part of the cutting bar frame. This does not interfere with the raising or lowering of the frame, as will be noticed, seeing that the belting and pulleys can work at different angles. On the shaft of the cutting bars is a crank which drives a rod, and this last passes down along the frame to the lower part, where it connects with a rack and pinion movement. By means of the alternate up and down movement of the rod, and the rack and pinion at the lower part the cutting blades are given the to and fro movement in the same

way as is seen in the usual blades, and in this way a wide swath is cut under water and at any desired height above the bottom. The paddle wheel is carried on a frame which is adjustable by means of bolts, so as to give the paddles any desired immersion, and the gasoline motor drives the wheel by gearing and chain device, using two separate counterweights for this purpose so as to give the needed speed reduction. The gasoline motor is operated at the standard speed of 500 revolutions per minute. When it is required to take the boat into shallow water or otherwise to pass over rocks or other obstacles, the cutting frame can be lifted entirely out of the water. In this case the cutting bars are folded up along each side of the frame so as to occupy but little space. In usual practice the cutting is carried out at the rate of 1½ miles an hour, and the cost of operating is estimated at \$0.25 per mile, comprising gasoline, oil, labor, together with depreciation and maintenance. For cutting one acre, the cost is figured at \$2.70.

The Amiot system is meeting with great success in Europe, and it is now in use on the artificial lakes of the domain of the Institute of France, at Chantilly, and also on the domain of Laeken, belonging to the King of Belgium. It is also used on a number of canals and rivers in France.

According to the Electrical Review and Western Electrician, the Park Building at Pittsburgh, Pa., which is 15 stories high and contains 400 offices, was recently lighted by carbon filament lamps and had its interior decorations painted a deep sea green color. It is now lighted by tungsten lamps, and has its interior painted a light buff color. On each floor 3,210 carbon lamps (66-watt) by 760 100-watt and 200 25-watt tungsten lamps, and 21,440 watts in 16 and 32 candle-power carbon lamps in the corridors and lifts by 8,400 watts in 40-watt and 400 watts in 100-watt and 200-watt lamps, 248.4 kilowatts is saved.



The upper view shows reaper boat in operation. The lower picture is a plan view showing mechanical arrangement.

## A REAPER BOAT.

**THE ELEVATOR INSTALLATION OF THE METROPOLITAN  
LIFE TOWER.**

In the newly completed Metropolitan Life Insurance tower is to be found an example of an installation that grows the purpose of lifting cars to an altitude greater than that attained in any building yet constructed. The tower is a masterpiece of engineering; the installation is a model of modern elevator engineering. Furthermore, it is significant of the successful development of a comparatively recent type of elevator machine which has been tested in actual service as well as the requirements of service as well as the requirements of safety. The tower is the largest building in the city, and it is the only one in the city which is so high that it is possible to go even higher than that elevators can be installed; the tower is a skyscraper which the ambitious architect would not yet essay. As a result of this engineering achievement there is no difficulty in renting offices far above the city's noise and dust. No more time is consumed in the climb to the top of the Metropolitan tower than in the climb to the top of any other building.

For the Metropolitan Life tower, the type of elevator selected was the Otis traction overhead machine, in which the motor and driving sheaves are situated directly above the hatchway. High up in the apex of this white marble campanile are to be found powerful electric motors, whose installation at this elevation taxed the ingenuity of the architect and engineer. They are without doubt the highest motors working in any building.

[illegible][illegible]

Each elevator is expected to travel up, and down

daily a total clearance of 25 to 35 miles. The position of the engineer naturally changes in the morning, when the heavy machinery have been installed at the top of the tower under most extraordinary conditions; for as the view of the tower shows, the tapering top affords little space for the heavy machinery.

Harvey installation was not a total failure of the construction of the tower, but an even-potential possibility of a total failure. The tower was built on a steel framework, the rails for the cars were set in place, and a temporary elevator was rigged to send up the materials of construction. As the material for the five elevators was sent up, the cars were lowered and the elevator could be carried up by the high-rise elevator, thus the construction was not so difficult a matter. When it became necessary to raise the material for the tower, the cars were lowered and the elevator was sent up. Eventually, the task was accomplished, and the huge castings and armature were sent up to a point where they were lowered into place. The tower was built in two sections. These machines weigh 1,000 pounds each in the case of the four, and 25,000 pounds each for two elevators. The four were deriven are employed to enable other heavy machinery to be raised. The two elevators are employed to raise the tower, weigh 2,000 and 2,500 pounds respectively for the two classes of machines. It was here that the tower was built, and the government was not able to type, which will be used in the future of the tower.

The motors are rated at 40 horse-power and use 115 volts direct current. They run at a speed of from 250 to 280 revolutions per minute, and the peripheral velocity of the driving sheave on the armature shaft gives the speed of the car. The limited space in a high tower presents problems quite different from those of a large building, such as that of the Hudson Terminal, where the traction machines can be arranged in orderly rank. In the tower the machines may have to be placed above the other, or at an angle, perhaps, while the controllers and other auxiliaries must be fitted in wherever a place offers. Consequently, the machinery room of the tower has a bewildering appearance. Every inch of space is utilized despite crowded quarters. There is the utmost order

Around the driving shows pass the lifting and counterweight cables, six in number for each machine. They are  $\frac{7}{8}$  of an inch in diameter, and each cable has a breaking strength of 30,000 pounds. The cables are made by the American Wire Rope Co., from 976 to 936 feet for the high-rise car. Another important cable is that passing through the car to the centrifugal speed governor at the top of the halfway landing.

These are  $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch cables, and they vary in length from 1144 to 1,374 feet. Their function is to transmit the motion of the car to the governor, which controls, in case of excess speed, not only cuts off the power, but causes the safety device of the car to come into play and lock it firmly to the rails. The cars, which vary from 9 feet 4 inches by 6 feet 4 inches to 5 feet 4 inches by 8 feet, weigh about 4,000 to 4,500 pounds. The counterweight is slightly heavier than the empty car, so that the car is always carrying an average load.

In the more recent Otis traction elevators, the clanking chain used to compensate the weight of the hoisting and counterweight cables has been supplanted by a special flat wire rope, which is  $\frac{3}{8}$  inches wide and  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an inch thick, one end being attached to the bottom of the car and the other to the bottom of the counterweight. This cable passes over flat flanged sheaves, arranged in a channel-iron frame at the bottom of the shaft, which frame is carried in such a way that the sheaves are free to move up and down as the hoisting ropes stretch or contract. Two of these compensating cables are attached to each elevator, their length varying from 575 to 630 feet. Safety no less than usual is insured for these ex-

press elevators. Thus the speed governor already referred to serves to actuate a wedge-clamp device on the car, and to limit the speed electrically to 700 ft per minute. If a speed of 800 feet per minute is reached, the wedge-clamp safety device works at once, and the car is clamped to the rails. Furthermore, each car has an emergency brake which enables the operator to shut off the power and clamp the car to the rails independently of the speed governor. At the top of the shaft, safety retarding devices check the speed of either car or counterweight in case the ordinary limit of travel is exceeded.

Both cars and counterweights land on patented oil buffers at the bottom of the shaft, which buffers are arranged so as to stop the cars when running at full speed, that is, under 800 feet per minute, and these have been found to work by actual test most effectively and satisfactorily.

The Suez Canal is quite a different affair today from what it was when it was opened in 1869. Mr. Vice-Consul Denjoy gives some interesting details of how the canal has been changed to meet the modern

### An Ingenious Way of Examining the Contents of the Duodenum.

The lay mind is apt to consider the advances made in surgery in the last decade or more important than these in modern medical practice. That this point of view is erroneous is proven by the many "miraculous" cures which have of late years been put to the test to enable a physician to examine with the greatest accuracy the workings of inner organs and to restore them to their normal condition without resorting to the surgeon's knife. Notable forward progress in this direction has been made in the study of the digestive tract of the human body. In the examination of the stomach and its contents by the use of a bucket firmly held at the end of a fine cable and let down into the stomach, to fill and be hauled up again for examination by chemical reaction tests, to determine whether the stomach digests normally, and in the use of the "barium meal" by which a physician can diagnose correctly the defects or diseases of the digestive organ.

From the New York Medical Journal we learn that Dr. Max Hirsch, professor of medicine at the New York Post-Graduate Medical School, has succeeded in obtaining samples of the chyme contained in the duodenum by the use of a very simple apparatus called the "digestive juice aspirator," a portion of which instrument is introduced into the duodenum by way of the oesophagus and stomach without the slightest discomfort to the patient.

It is well known that primary digestion takes place in the stomach, but the most important digestive action takes place in the duodenum that is, the part into which the stomach discharges by way of the pylorus, and which also receives the very important secretions from the liver (bile) and the pancreas.

For the purpose mentioned, Dr. Elshorn uses a thin flexible tube terminating in a small metallic perforated capsule, which is swallowed by the patient and passes into the stomach, dragging the flexible tube along in its descent, the tube being sufficiently long to extend a distance out of the patient's mouth.

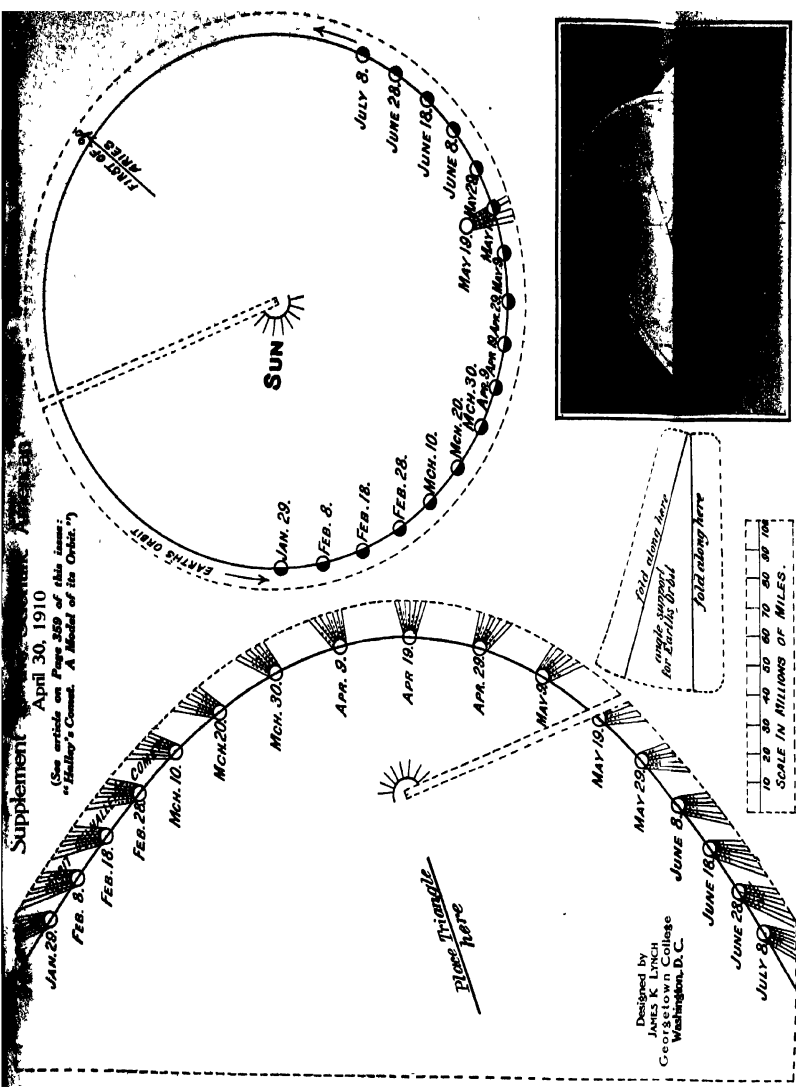
The capsule in the stomach is acted on by the movement of the stomach wall, as in the case of food. In the course of about an hour it passes by way of the pylorus into the duodenum, and even as far as the beginning of the small intestine. The outer end of the tube is then connected with a small hand-suction pump, the piston of which is gradually withdrawn, so that the duodenal contents are drawn into the perforated capsule and up through the tube into the glass barrel of the pump, which latter is now disconnected from the tube and its contents emptied into a vial for examination. The tube and the capsule attached thereto are then withdrawn.

The immense importance of being able to obtain the chyme directly from the duodenum, especially the lower part thereof, is apparent, as the physician by the subsequent tests made of the chyme obtained, can diagnose accurately and readily determine the proper or improper functioning of the duodenum. The same instrument can, of course, also be used in the stomach, to obtain samples of gastric secretions, during the entire period of stomach digestion, from beginning to end.

The successful use of the simple device described has led Dr. Hinrichs to his reverse use, that is, in introducing food or medicine directly into the bloodstream without first passing it into the stomach. In the ordinary way of swallowing the food or medicine in this case, the food or medicine in liquid form is forced into the barrel of the pump and then, the action of the perforated cupula into the bloodstream as above described, the pump is attached to the veins of the body and the pump is actuated by means of the foot or another member of the body. The pump is forced against the resistance of the blood in the veins and the food or medicine is forced into the bloodstream. This pump is used in the treatment of various diseases, such as diabetes, and in the treatment of various diseases, such as diabetes, and in the treatment of various diseases, such as diabetes.

# Supplement April 30, 1910

(See article on Page 389 of this issue: "Halley's Comet. A Model of its Orbit.")



Designed by  
JAMES K. LYNCH  
Georgetown College  
Washington, D. C.

HOW TO MAKE A MODEL OF THE ORBIT OF HALLEY'S COMET, SHOWING ITS RELATIVE POSITION TO THE EARTH'S ORBIT

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To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN  
I was much interested to read the letter of C. H. McGuffey of Norfolk, Va. in your issue of April 8th concerning monopolies and the disposition of weight below the level of the soaring plane.

In a letter I wrote to the Wright Brothers at the time of the unfortunate accident in which a valued officer of the United States Army lost his life, I advocated the very principle set forth by Mr McGinnis and emphatically believe still that the adoption of that method will preclude the possibility of the recurrence of such accidents.

In the letter referred to are sketches illustrating the idea and showing the same in comparison with a bird in the act of flight. The whole thing was submitted without any mercenary motive and was simply for the common pleasure of the artist.

As a mere student of aviation I submit the foregoing in the hope that you will publish the same as it may lead to experimentation. HENRY W. MATTHEWS  
Lock Haven, Pa.

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN  
Mr McClean's letter in the issue of April 9th exemplifies an error only too common among people who take an interest in aeroplanes. Placing the center of gravity low in an aeroplane introduces many objectionable features which more than outweigh its advantages. Far from having a stabilising effect the low center of gravity makes the machine more unstable than ever and calls for great skill on the part of the aviator to maintain an upright position.

This is due to the pendulum effect of the suspended weight. When the propeller attempts to accelerate the machine by increasing its forward thrust it is resisted by the inertia due to the machine's weight and if the center of gravity is below the center of the propeller the machine will tip forward.

Likewise on a turn the suspended weight tends to swing out in a larger circle than center of the supporting surface where the resistance is concentrated and so tends to depress the inner wing just the contrary of what Mr. McCluer assumes would take place. This disturbing tendency is in addition to the depression of the inner wing due to its slower speed.

Mr. McEwen's analogies to natural forms have much that is good in them and like him I favor the monoplanes but I believe that soaring birds will be found on closer observation to keep their weight well up on their wings. The only safe principle for an aeroplane is to have the centers of gravity thrust and support as nearly as possible coincident.

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

[illegible]

The heat generated by action of the integuments of the skin in the presence of the atmosphere tends to harden the outer sheath of the hair and gives to it its permanent character.

In the temperate zones of the United States where the humidity of the atmosphere is not so dense with water vapor as in the tropics, the negroes are not so heavily impregnated with metallic compounds and gaseous substances and where the Afro-American race was removed long from beneath the direct rays of the torrid tropical sun the etiologic factors which have produced the coloration of the skin of the Afro-American's hair episode will in time make his hair entropic. The modern science of anthropology has demonstrated that the Negro is of an "Indo-European" origin but Sergius Stepanoff states that Homo Caucasus is of a Mediterranean origin Ripley (see Races of Europe p 176) also agrees with the African origin of the Negro. The statement from the African negro (See Darwin's Descent of Man, p 171) "The probable and acceptable by all intelligent people is that the Negro is of an Asiatic origin." The logical theories 1894 p 24 who say. The white races of Europe had their geographical genesis in the times of the glacial period and were introduced into the times over the whole of Europe. The white races of Europe and America are therefore of a negro origin and the black races of Africa are therefore of a depigmented skin and straightened the hair of the Homo Caucasus will in time produce the same result the Afro-American's skin and append

St. Paul, Minn.

## BY JAMES E. LYNCH, GROOM STOWN COLLEGE

For the large number of people now interested in the famous Halley's comet who have found difficulty in obtaining an intelligent idea of its motion in space its apparent motion in the sky and the times of its visibility a cardboard relief model like that of which a photograph is herewith reproduced will be of great assistance. And even those who already understand the phenomena from the study of plane diagrams may desire to have a clear idea of them from the model because it is much more concrete and impressive. The sun and the orbits of the comet and the earth as they really exist in space and not as they are often showned ~~being~~ being projected on the same plane

In order that the readers of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN may easily construct such a model for themselves patterns or diagrams are printed on the accompanying loose-leaf supplement which when pasted on cardboard cut out and properly fitted together will make an excellent model.

After telling how to construct the model some description will be given explaining how the astronomical phenomena may be studied from it.

Having first pasted the loose-leaf on a sheet of card board about 16-ply cut out the three diagrams along the dotted lines. Also cut a narrow slot through the planes of both the comets and earth's orbits at the places marked. Then insert the planes into each other as far as the slots will allow keeping the earth's orbit below that of the comet on the right but above it on the left.

If the two planes are correctly fitted together they will now produce the general effect shown in the photograph. But besides having the model rigid the two planes must be given the necessary inclination to each other of approximately 18 degrees.

Fasten the two planes together by pasting two small muslin hinges in the angle between them one on each side of the sun keeping the slots in line. Then bend in over the flaps of the triangle along the two lines marked on it paste it as a wedge between the plane of the earth's orbit above and the comet's below. This completes the model.

The reader will observe that the comet's position is indicated at intervals of ten days before and after perihelion as it travels in its orbit in the direction of the arrows. The earth's position as it yearly moves about the sun in the opposite direction is also shown for the same days. The printed side of the model

Examining the comet's path in space we see that it cuts through the plane of the ecliptic at the ascending node symbol  $\odot$  in January. On April 19th it was at perihelion. On May 18th 19th it cuts through the plane of the ecliptic at the descending node.

During the early part of the year the comet and the earth moved on roughly parallel lines. Hence the comet grew brighter only by a change in its intrinsic brilliancy. Now however the orbits are rounding in toward each other and the comet will be more conspicuous because it is approaching the earth.

The tail is always directed away from the sun. Hence in March it was much foreshortened for us. Now it is becoming more nearly perpendicular to the line of sight and will soon be seen more in its full extent.

The time of visibility of the comet will depend on whether it is to the left or right of the sun as seen from the earth. To transfer curiosity to the sky left and right on the horizon, one should imagine the sun at the meridian at noon with the comet to the left or right. Taking the way that common observation shows the sun to move across the sky from east to west on account of the earth's daily rotation it is easy to see that any body that is to the left of the sun at noon will rise and set later than the sun and anything to the right at noon will rise and set earlier than the sun.

Hence before March 25th the comet being to the left of the sun rose in daylight but set after the sun and was visible in the evening. At present it is to the right of the sun and rises before it in the morning increasing its distance until May 8th when it reaches its greatest western elongation. It then approaches the sun and comes into inferior conjunction on May 16th 19th

As the three celestial bodies are also in the same plane on this date the circumstance makes it possible for us to go through the comet's tail if it is long enough to reach us. What we shall see on that night is not the purpose of the present article to consider but it may be said that as the moon is then approaching full a face which has been somewhat overlooked we may not see anything at all.

The comet and the earth are fourteen million miles distant May 18th 19th but their closest approach occurs a day later when they are thirteen million miles apart. The closest approach of the orbits is at a point a little below to the left where the comet's orbit is six and one-half million miles below the earth's. On diagrams where both orbits are projected on one plane they apparently intersect at this point hence some people have imagined a possible collision here but the orbits never intersect as the model shows.

On and after May 20th as the comet is to the left of the sun in the model it will again be visible in the western sky being seen as soon as it is dark enough and setting about two hours after sunset which time will gradually increase to four hours by the end of May. But as the two bodies are then receding in almost opposite directions and the tail is turning more and more away from us the glory of Halley's comet will soon be lost to us for three-quarters of a century.

The new 60 lb. rifle being one of the Mount

Wilson Solar Observatory has been in operation for more than one year. A description of this wonderful instrument is given in the current issue of the *Journal of the Royal Society*. The article is by H. A. Wilson and is titled "The Wilson Solar Observatory". The article is a very interesting and comprehensive review of the work of the Wilson Solar Observatory. The article is a very interesting and comprehensive review of the work of the Wilson Solar Observatory. The article is a very interesting and comprehensive review of the work of the Wilson Solar Observatory.

After six years met Mr Peter Cooper Hewitt

has been awarded patents for his mercury vapor electric lamp. The patents have been in interference almost since the date when they were first applied for in 1901. Mr. Hewitt's chief opponent was the General Electric Company.

In accordance with the recent decision affecting the classification of articles under the tariff Act of 1909 the United States Treasury Department has instructed customs officers to admit free of duty all miners' safety lamps whether electric or designed for using gas or other illuminating materials with or without glass chimneys and whether imported as an entirety or in separate parts together with any apparatus for packing or unpacking such safety lamps for testing or restoring flaws in these lamps or for cleaning them; of dust particles etc. together with all miter, re-secure appliances and parts thereof such as: nuts to special coupling of valves special oxygen cylinder re-milling oxygen pumps and all other essential parts of the complete unit; whether imported as an entirety or in separate parts.

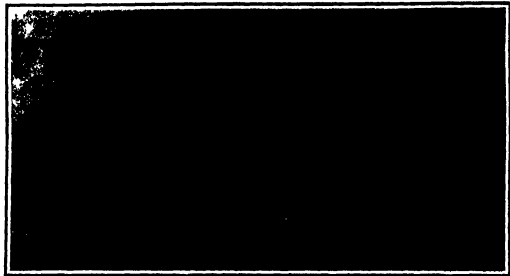
## THE MOTOR-BOAT RACES AT MONACO

BY THE PARIS CORRESPONDENT OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

The motor boat races at Monaco and Monte Carlo this year were noteworthy on account of the extremely high speed which was attained according to the cable dispatches. There were a score or more of boats in the races which were favored with excellent weather

and a half astonished many of the spectators, and was an excellent testimonial to the design and construction of the Wolsley-Hideoley motors that drove her. She was piloted by her owner who steered her with great steadiness. He took the turns with

great accuracy is obtained, and an experience has shown that in a long-distance race a boat will make less speed if anything, than in a short speed trial. It seems certain that the *Ureula* has not shown much more than 40 miles an hour so far. That she should



Three of the contestants making a turn in the "Championship of the Sea" race

that made possible the attainment of great speed was fully in the long-distance events.

The first long-distance race for the Championship of the Sea was held on Sunday April 10th. Count de Pourtales, Corsica, readily won this 300-kilometer (194-mile) race in 4 hours 23 minutes 42.2 seconds at a speed of 28.31 miles per hour. Out of the 28 competitors in this long-distance race for cruises the *Tel Mare* (Chelyso), *Gregoire VIII* and *Spagali* finished in the order given.

It was an exciting one as several of the boats were quite evenly matched. The *Brasler Despujols* hydroplane, which was one of the novel craft that ran this year did very well and showed good speed in proportion to its horse-power. In the second great international race for the Coupe des Nations which took place on April 12th this boat was second finishing but 7 minutes and 47 seconds behind the *Ureula* which completed the 100 kilometers (62.1 miles) in 1 hour 26 minutes 30.25 seconds. The *Brasler Despujols* averaged 39.1 miles an hour against 49.86 miles an hour of the *Ureula*. She was fitted with a *Brasler 4-cylinder engine* of 100 horse-power while the *Ureula* had two 12-cylinder motors totaling 800 horse-power. One of our photographs shows the twin screws of the *Ureula*. Her engines are arranged side by side one on each side of the hull. Another photograph shows the *Ureula* at full speed while a third picture shows the *Brasler Despujols*. The difference in the amount of spray thrown by these two boats is interesting. The former cuts through the water with very little disturbance while the latter rises over it with a good deal of splashing. The great velocity with which the *Ureula* speeded around the course for nearly an hour

out slowing down and at each turn the boat would tip dangerously. The *Ureula* showed herself to be one of the fastest motor boats that have ever been built but in the mile and kilometer speed trials she did not make anything like the time that she is reported to have accomplished in the long distance races. In fact the hydroplane beat her in the speed trials owing to its ability to get under way quicker. The times of the mile from a standing start and of the flying kilometer trials by the *Brasler Despujols* and the *Ureula* were as follows:

	Mile	Kilometer	Miles an Hour
<i>Brasler Despujols</i>	2 20		28 71
<i>Brasler Despujols</i>		50 3-5 sec	44 85
<i>Ureula</i>	2 30 5-5		35 90
<i>Ureula</i>		55 2 5 sec	40 20

The *Ureula* this year is fitted with the same two 12-cylinder Wolsley-Hideoley motors that were used last year. As her boat speed then was about 37 miles per hour it is fair to assume that the figures given in the cable reports are not correct or else that the distances around the course were less than supposed. It is extremely doubtful if the Duke of Westminster's racer averaged more than this figure in the long races especially since she made only 40.35 miles an hour in the flying kilometer speed trial. We understand that on account of the great depth of the water where the races are held there is often times a shifting of the buoys owing to the inclining of the anchor lines and that this causes a shortening of the course. The mile and kilometer tests are therefore the only ones in which any great de-

Stern of the "Ureula," showing rudder and twin screws.

have averaged 48 miles an hour with the same power plant as heretofore is very creditable.

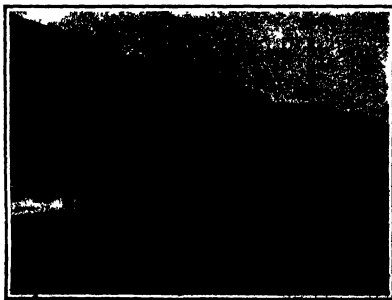
## An Aeroplane Flight with Five Passengers, and Cross-Country Flying in France.

One of the most remarkable performances ever made with an aeroplane was that of Roger Sommers' new biplane last week in France when piloted by its own constructor. It carried him and four other persons in a five-minute cross-country flight. On this occasion the aeroplane lifted some 750 pounds of dead weight or probably a total weight of 800 pounds with presumably a 50-horse power motor.

Another demonstration of the 4-cylinder 60-hp heavier than air machine was given on April 12th by Louis Paulhan who flew from Orleans to Arc-en-Aube (118 miles) in 3 1/4 hours on his Farman biplane. The next day he flew 49 1/2 miles further across country in 1 hour and 10 minutes reaching a height of 750 feet. Henry Farman on the 17th instant also flew 60 miles across country with a passenger.

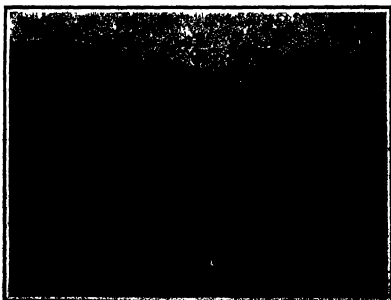
These brilliant flights form an excellent demonstration of the great advance recently made in dynamic flight and point the way to the practical utilization of the aeroplane for the transportation of individuals and of mail.

The Electrical World states that at a recent miners' convention in Indianapolis the opposition of mine workers to electric power the introduction of which they consider against their interests was manifested in a resolution declaring that the use of electricity in mines is hazardous as the leakage from poorly insulated wires has a tendency to ignite mine gases and frequently causes explosions.



The Brasler Despujols hydroplane at full speed.

This boat made 44.86 miles an hour in the flying kilometer speed trial.



The Duke of Westminster's "Ureula" speeding in French Bay.

During winning the 100-kilometer Coupe des Nations race 1910 she made the record of 49.86 miles an hour.

# THE MANUFACTURE OF CELLULOID

BY JACQUES BOYER

More than sixty years ago chemists began the search for substances of which imitations of horn, tortoise shell, and ivory could be made. One of the first experimenters Dr. Plisson of New Orleans furnished a theoretical solution of the problem in 1848 by the discovery of celluloid, a complex substance consisting chiefly of nitrocellulose and camphor, but no industrial application of celluloid was made until a much later date.

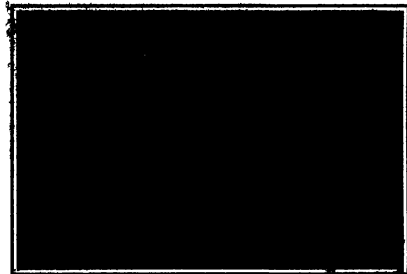
In 1862 Parkes of Birmingham obtained a similar substance which he named "parkesine" by mixing gun cotton with wood naphtha. The hardness of parkesine limited its applications and it was employed chiefly as an electrical insulator. In order to soften

it castor oil was added to the mixture and afterward the naphtha was replaced by methyl alcohol. Parkesine obtained a temporary success in England but it was driven out of the market by the cheaper celluloid the manufacture of which was begun by the Hyatt brothers in Newark, New Jersey, in 1867. Other large celluloid factories were subsequently established in America, France, England, and Germany.

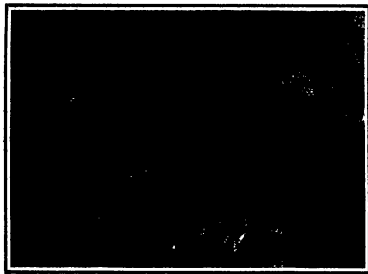
Celluloid is now made from a very pure form of cellulose usually obtained from cotton or unbleached filter paper. The cellulose is converted into nitrocellulose by methods which vary somewhat in different factories. Among the processes most commonly used is the following: The material—raw or spun cotton or

paper chopped or cut into strips—is immersed in nitric acid for a period ranging from fifteen minutes to two hours according to the character of the fibers and the temperature of the bath. The cotton or paper now converted into nitrocellulose is taken out wrung and pressed to remove most of the adhering liquid which may or may not be returned to the nitrating bath. In either case the strength of the bath is restored to its original value by the addition of concentrated nitric acid.

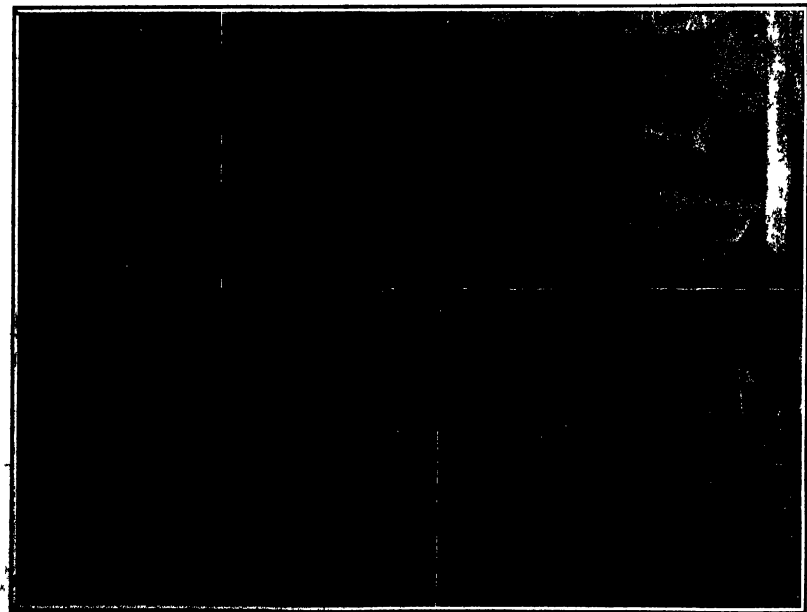
The nitrocellulose is washed in water and ground in a paper mill in which a rotary movement is impressed upon the mass as it is forced between a pair of two cylinders which rotate at a speed of 160 revolutions



Standing celluloid baton.



Blowing celluloid doll.



Rolling sheet of celluloid.

Rolling sheet of celluloid.

Cutting out celluloid rods.

Rolling sheet of celluloid.

per minute. The cylinders are set with steel blades, parallel to the axis, and the plate bears a number of steel blades, slightly inclined to those of the cylinder. The finely ground nitrocellulose next goes to the blowers, where it is treated with chlorine, hydrogen dioxide sulphuric acid, potassium permanganate and other decolorizing agents. It is then washed thoroughly, pressed between rollers, and dried.

Celluloid is made by dissolving cellulose in an alcoholic solution of camphor. Some manufacturers mix the camphor with the moist product of the roller process which contains 40 per cent of water, while others add the camphor to the dried nitrocellulose in the *press*, called the moist pulp, camphor and coloring matter are ground together between horizontal, circularly fluted iron "millstones." The mixture is passed several times through the mill, and is then dried. When the nitrocellulose is dried separately the lumps formed in the passage through the roller press are crushed by rubbing the pulp, with the hand through a coarse wire screen.

Drying is effected indirectly by pressing the pulp between layers of absorbent material. The pulp is spread on a cloth which is turned up over it, forming a rectangular cake 24 inches long, 20 inches wide, and about 1/2 inch thick. In the factory of the Société Industrielle du Celluloid these cakes are piled alternately with dry felt sheets of iron being introduced after each lot or fifteen cakes of pulp, in order to facilitate handling. The pile is then subjected to a hydraulic pressure of about 250 tons. After a few minutes of this violent compression, the new wet felt is replaced by dry felt and the operation is repeated until the nitrocellulose is dry. The compressed cakes are now unwrapped and broken into fragments for solution. If the camphor has been added before drying the broken cakes are simply sprinkled with alcohol, but if the dried nitrocellulose contains no camphor it is moistened with a solution of 90 parts by weight of camphor in 100 parts of alcohol.

The solvent is allowed to act for 24 hours and then the mass is rolled between hollow iron cylinders, from 12 to 25 inches in diameter, which make 10 revolutions per minute, and are cooled or heated, as desired by a circulation of cold water or steam in their interior. From 65 to 150 pounds of celluloid are rolled at a time the rolling being continued from half an hour to several hours. Toward the end of the operation the cylinders are brought close together in order to produce a thin sheet of celluloid longer and wider than the press by which the sheets are converted into blocks. The rolled sheets are trimmed to the exact dimensions of the press, and the trimmings go back to the rolling mill.

In the Champillon block press a strong iron box 54 inches long, 26 inches wide and 12 inches high is filled with sheets of celluloid and these are converted into a single block by pressing between two iron plates. The top plate is fixed in position, while the bottom plate is carried by a plunger which enters a cylinder below and is forced upward by hydraulic pressure. A pressure of 250 tons is applied for a period varying from 5 to 12 hours, during which the celluloid is kept at temperature of from 158 to 194 deg. F by a circulation of hot water in the interior of the plates and the double walls of the box. The mass is cooled by substituting cold for hot water, and the pressure of application the cooling. The top plate is then removed and the block of celluloid is forced out of the top of the box by means of a plunger pressure from below.

The blocks are cut into bands or rods according to the purpose for which the celluloid is to be used. The bands are cut by a machine in which a knife, the edge of which is inclined 45 degrees to the horizontal, is forced downwards by a screw. In this way bands varying in thickness from 1/250 inch to 1/4 inch can be obtained. Celluloid is cut into rods or sheets by a machine in which the cutting tool has the form of a short cylinder of 1/2 inch diameter varying according to the size of the rod desired.

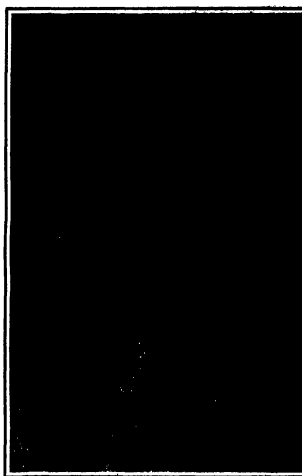
The celluloid, after it is cut up is dried in chambers where the temperature is never allowed to exceed 111 deg. F or to be exposed to a vacuum of application. The time required for dehydration varies greatly with the thickness of the bands or rods. Bands thinner than 1/100 inch dry in a few hours while strips thick enough to be made into knife handles, for example, must remain in the drying chamber about six months.

When of celluloid are made directly from the rolled sheets in an apparatus which contains two vertical cylinders, with their axes in the same line and their plates connected by a steel rod. The bottom of the

lower cylinder has a central orifice in which a small aperture of various diameters can be adjusted, and the lower part of the cylinder is heated by a circulation of hot water. The celluloid is introduced into this cylinder and hydraulic pressure is applied by means of the cylinder above. The celluloid, softened by the heat, is thus forced through the aperture in the form of a tube, which the operator draws away and cuts into convenient lengths by means of a clamp attached to a cord passing over a reversible pulley.

To return to the bands of celluloid which have been cut from the pressed blocks. In the drying chambers these bands become warped. They are flattened in a hydraulic polishing press which exerts a pressure of about 1,000 tons. The celluloid bands are piled alternately with sheets of polished brass or nickel-plated steel, a thin plate of cast iron covered with cloth or felt being inserted after each four or five bands. These iron plates contain channels for the circulation of steam or cold water. While the pressure is applied the plates are first heated by steam to 180 or 190 deg. F for a few minutes and are then cooled by cold water. When the bands are taken from the press they are found to have acquired the high polish of sheets of metal which were in contact with them.

Before describing the subsequent transformations of the bands and tubes of celluloid, the methods of producing striped, veined, and marbled sheets should



Flattening celluloid bands that have warped in drying.

#### THE MANUFACTURE OF CELLULOID.

be noted. For this purpose two blocks of celluloid of different colors are made separately in the block press and cut into bands about 1/100 inch thick. A pile of these bands, arranged in alternating colors, is sliced with a powerful paper knife. The fine strips of celluloid of two colors resulting from this operation are arranged regularly or irregularly in the block press and converted into a solid block of striped, veined, marbled or "watered" appearance.

From the bands, rods and tubes of plain and variegated celluloid, objects of every form and character, presenting the appearance of ivory, tortoise shell, mahogany and other woods, coral, amber, glass, marble, shell, alken fabric, etc., are made by various operations, of which the most important are shaping, cutting out molding, carving, blowing, varnishing and decorating.

Celluloid, like wood, horn and ivory, is usually shaped by hand, with the chisel, drawing knife, rasp, etc. Celluloid hair pins are pointed on the emery wheel. Shaping is done also on the lathe in the factory of the Société Industrielle Ag. Indeed, the cutting out is done principally by machine. The plates, circular and hand saws, and cutting wheels with straight and curved edges. A wheel of special form is employed to cut out small letters and designs which are painted on lacques and engravings and other mechanical. Fine sheets with various patterns are cut out with

a special machine. The plates are also cut out with a special machine. The plates are also cut out with a special machine.

Carving is done by hand, and is done in the factory of the Société Industrielle Ag. Indeed, the cutting out is done principally by machine. The plates, circular and hand saws, and cutting wheels with straight and curved edges. A wheel of special form is employed to cut out small letters and designs which are painted on lacques and engravings and other mechanical. Fine sheets with various patterns are cut out with

Celluloid objects of the utmost variety of form are produced by the use of the lathe, in which operation the softening influence of heat is utilized. The object, composed of two or more segments, is inserted between the two segments of a brass mold, which is in contact with the heated plates of a steam press. When the celluloid has become sufficiently plastic, the plates are forced together, and the celluloid assumes the exact form of the mold, which it retains after cooling. Lathe, plates of silver, and similar small thin objects of celluloid are shaped by stamping with dies.

The operation of blowing is performed on celluloid tubes as they are drawn from the press. A tube of suitable dimensions is placed in a heated mold composed of two or more segments and, when soft, is inflated by a blast of high pressure steam which forces the celluloid into contact with every part of the mold, which is cooled by water. The object, in this way, which brown colors and similar cup-shaped objects, as well as dolls, animal figures and other toys are made. The parts of celluloid bands and other hollow objects are joined by means of acetone, acetic acid or other solvents of celluloid. Cheap boxes are varnished with a solution of celluloid in acetic acid, which serves polishing with pumice stone.

For decorating the surface of celluloid, aniline colors dissolved in alcohol are employed.

#### Air Resistance Experiments.

A useful critical comparison of the work of Frank and Biffel is provided by W. Schule in the Zeitschrift des Vereines Deutscher Ing. The law that resistance is proportional to the square of the velocity has been verified by Frank and Biffel for 0.2 m/sec. and by Biffel from 15 to 40 m/sec. The specific resistance is proportional to the normal area, and this resistance does not vary with the inclination of an area of 1 sq. m. (Biffel). The results of Frank for right circular cylinders and cones of various angles are in contradiction to those of Biffel. The error is considered to be on the side of Biffel, and further, the resistance deduced by the latter from his experiments with inclined plates requires substantial correction. The resistance of an inclined plate increases very quickly with the inclination of the plate up to 80 deg., and much more slowly thereafter. Frank's coefficient for the surface friction of plates moving parallel to their length, viz., 0.0054, shows that the resistance of such a plate is 258 times less than that for the same plate moving along the normal. This coefficient agrees well with the resistance coefficient of vapors and gases in motion through tubes. The velocity from 10 deg. to 80 deg. plate inclination, the surface friction of plates increases on the specific resistance. Applying Frank's law of friction along with Biffel's results for plates inclined at 80 deg. to 80 deg., the specific resistance may be found for the region of the plate in firing technique, viz., between 0 deg. and 18 deg., at 5 deg. inclination, the resistance is reduced to the unit of surface projection, passes through a minimum value (20 parts to 1) at 8 deg. inclination, and for 1 deg. it is 1/10 deg. The ratio of apparent to moving force for an inclined plate is moving is greater for an inclination of 4 deg., and the apparent resistance a maximum for the inclination of 18 deg.

Celluloid water crystals have been prepared, but not for use in the manufacture of celluloid. The celluloid crystals are prepared by the use of a higher grade of acetone. The crystals are prepared by the use of a higher grade of acetone. The crystals are prepared by the use of a higher grade of acetone.



# The Home Laboratory

DISCOVERIES MADE AND HOW TO TEST THEM.  
BY JOHN A. A. HERRICK, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

The arrival of Hallow's comet and the interesting changes in the appearance noticed by the keen-eyed astronomer using a powerful telescope have naturally drawn the public to inquire into the use of such glasses, and to wonder how much their eyes could see if a telescope were put at their disposal. Certain



Fig. 1.—FOCUS OF A LENS.

it is that the first look through a large telescope would be disappointing, for nothing appears so big or so magnified as expected. The beginner is apt to believe that he could see the whole moon at once and go on only a few miles away, but is amazed to find he can see only a small portion of it and that shimmering and dancing in a purple haze. He may admire the beauty of the color not knowing that this is caused by an imperfection of the telescope which cannot, unfortunately, be got rid of. Indeed, the moon presents a prettier picture in a three- or four-inch telescope than it does in anything bigger. It is in the hope of explaining the simple things about a telescope that this article is written.

It is sometimes thought that a telescope is powerful because the rays of light pass through a large number of lenses placed at intervals down the tube. This idea, like many another popular one, is entirely erroneous. The telescope gets its power mainly from the objective which causes the rays of light coming from the object under observation to converge, and if not intercepted form an image.

The action of a simple lens is easily understood. If parallel rays of light fall on the lens in the same direction as the axis of the lens they will (Fig. 1) converge to a point *F*, called the principal focus, and similarly, rays from *F* will emerge from the lens as parallel rays. If *F* may be on either side of the lens, and it is imma-

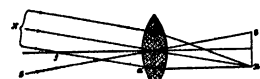


Fig. 2.—FORMATION OF AN INVERTED IMAGE.

terial in which direction the light goes through. The distance from *F* to the lens is the focal length. Next, if we have a parallel beam not in the direction of the axis (Fig. 2) it will likewise converge to a point, different from *F*. If we consider the thickness of the lens, a ray through the center of the lens *O* goes through undeviated, a ray *fa* through *f* the focus will converge parallel to the axis. Rays from the north edge of the moon, *R*, to the point *a*, and from the south edge of the moon, *S*, to the point *a*. Hence the lens forms a real image at the focus, so that if we placed there a ground-glass or a photographic plate we would obtain a picture of the moon. This image is inverted.

Three different ways of using the convergent pencil of rays from the object glass give three different kinds of telescopes. If the rays before they converge from fall upon a double convex lens we have the Galilean telescope, a principle which exists in the common opera glass. This gives an erect image. If the image at the focus is examined with a double convex lens, a "magnifying glass," we have the astronomical telescope, first patented by Kepler. This gives an inverted image. If the image is examined by two double convex lenses, a compound microscope which again inverts the image, their results the terrestrial telescope, and objects are seen erect.

In the primary reflecting Galilean telescope were made of unannealed lead, frequently being over one inch thick. The lens was made with a focal length of about 100 feet. The other optician had heard that if they attempted to increase the size of the lens, it was necessary to still more increase the thickness, and he made a great lens. The

rays are plane rays falling on the middle of a simple lens are brought to a focus at a different point from those falling on the edge of the lens, as is shown in Fig. 3. The distance from *F* to *G* gives the amount of the "chromatic aberration." Even more trouble was caused by the "spherical aberration," the



Fig. 3.—SPHERICAL ABERRATION.

star images had a great amount of color surrounding them. A lens may be regarded as a round prism. Since a prism not only deviates light but breaks it up into the spectrum colors, a simple lens will act as is shown in Fig. 4, the violet light is most refracted and is brought to a focus at *R*, the less refrangible red comes to a focus at *S*, with rays of the other colors in between those two extremes. The result of all this is that if we focus for the yellow, the red and violet form rings around this and a star image is surrounded with a considerable amount of color. Sir Isaac Newton was the first to explain these aberrations, and it is singular that although he made experiments to prove that glass and water refract light differently, he did not foresee Dolland's discovery (180 years ago) of making an objective from a combination of two lenses, one a double convex lens of crown glass, the other a double concave lens of flint glass.

With such a combination the optician has four surfaces to figure, and as a result it is possible to almost entirely eliminate spherical aberration, or in other words make a flat field. But on the other hand it is still impossible to get entirely rid of color. Flint

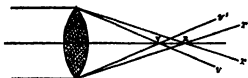


Fig. 4.—CHROMATIC ABERRATION.

and crown glass do not disperse light alike, the flint relatively yields out the violet and the more. The optician with glass of two different sorts at his disposal can bring two colors of the spectrum to a sharp focus. For a visual telescope the rays generally taken are the yellow and the blue green. Consequently both the red and the violet ends of the spectrum are not in sharp focus, and these form rings about the stellar image which combine to make purple color. In small telescopes this color is not so pronounced, but with large telescopes of 24 inches or more aperture the color is conspicuous and cannot be got rid of. This is known as the "secondary spectrum."

The problem of making a good visual lens is really a much simpler one than that of making a good photographic one. In the first place, in the ordinary telescope for visual purposes, the field is comparatively small, of only a few minutes of arc, and the process of making a field flat over the area is simple compared with that required in an instrument like the Bruce photographic telescope of the Yerkes Observatory, which photographs an area in the sky 16 deg square. With reflecting telescopes the ratio of the aperture to focal length is about in the ratio of 1:16 (the Yerkes 40-inch has a focal length of about 760 inches, a ratio of nearly 1:19). In a photographic telescope,



Fig. 5.—COMBINATION OF LENSES FOR RAPID PHOTOGRAPHIC WORK.

for the portrayal of a comet, for instance, as short exposures as possible are desired, and this calls for as great a ratio of aperture to focal length as possible. The ordinary amateur's camera works very well at a ratio of aperture to focal length of 1:16. If the lens is coated to 1:1 the photograph is not so sharp. Only lenses of the best makes can be used at 1:8. (Fig. 5.) Everyone who is familiar with the use of a camera knows how much sharper a picture is obtained by stopping down the lens. To obtain a

field from a lens with an aperture of 1:8 is impossible with only two lenses; three or more are necessary. Using glass of different indices of refraction which is possible from the fine qualities of Jena glass now procurable separates the lenses properly and grinding their surfaces to the right curves, it is possible to obtain a flat field with an absence of color and astigmatism. (Fig. 6.) The Bruce photographic telescope has an aperture of 10 inches with focal length 10 inches. It is a 4-lens combination, technically known as a "doublet."

Every skillful amateur knows how to test a photographic lens. This is perhaps done as well as any other way by the test cards for astigmatism, to see

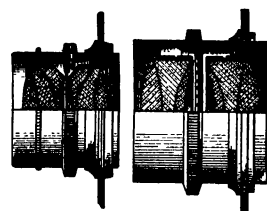


Fig. 6.—COMBINATION OF LENSES FOR FLAT FIELD AND ABSENCE OF COLOR.

If straight lines which intersect at right angles become lines or blurred images at the edge of the field. Still a lens might answer all the requirements for ordinary camera work but be a poor astronomical lens. A camera might cut clear to the edge of the plate on ordinary work, but when a three- or four-hour exposure is given on stars all imperfections will show up. Unfortunately, for obtaining astronomical photographs a telescope mounting with a good driving clock is indispensable—which is usually out of the reach of most amateurs.

On the other hand there are a number of small visual telescopes in the hands of amateurs, and a few words might be said in regard to testing them. This is best done on a moderately bright star. Focus carefully on it. Push the eyepiece in slowly and note the change in appearance. If the spot of light does not remain circular, the objective is not "squared on" properly, or the objective may be pinched in its cell. This must be adjusted before anything more is done. Now pushing the eyepiece in, the colors should



Fig. 7.—WORK OF A BICONVEX LENS COMPARED WITH AN ASTIGMATISM BLURRING DUE TO ASTIGMATISM IN BICONVEX LENS.

change gradually and symmetrically as the disk of light enlarges. The same should hold true by pulling the eyepiece outside the focus. If the telescope behaves well on this test, turn to a double star like Castor. As the amateur becomes familiar with the heavens, he will soon learn test objects for his telescope, and if he possesses a good instrument there is no longer pleasure than trying it night after night and becoming familiar with the beauties of the heavens.

## POWDER PLATING OF METALS.

Before a meeting of the Royal Society of Arts, in London last January, a paper was read on an improved method of electroplating. It described the process of plating metals by rubbing them with a moistened powder, and a number of articles were plated with gold silver and zinc before the society. The new plating powders are not to be confused with plating preparations which have been in use heretofore and which act merely to exchange the surface metal of the article to be plated with a thin film of deposited metal. In the new process a truly electrolytic action takes place which results in the deposit of metal without taking away the surface metal from the object to be coated. Furthermore the deposit may be made as thick as desired by continued applications of the powder. The inventor of this plating process began his experiments a number of years ago with a view to developing a process by which knives forks spoons and the like can be plated as readily as they can be covered with painting powder by which almost any metal is converted a method by which almost any

metal and even certain alloys such as brass in various proportions of copper and zinc can be applied to metal objects. So far the new powders are not on the market in this country but in England they are sold in small cans for a shilling each and one can is sufficient to plate the finished portions of a bicycle or to plate a quantity of household silverware.

The powders are composed (1) of the metal to be deposited in its electrolytic state (2) of a salt preferably a salt of ammonia and (3) of a porous metal which must be electropositive to the metal which is to be deposited. Magnesium is the most electropositive metal which is commercially practical to use and in most of the preparations mentioned in this article it is used in some of the preparations aluminum and zinc are used. The following formula gives the zinc plating powder.

Zinc	12 parts by weight
Ammonium sulphate	5 parts by weight
Magnesium	1 part by weight
Chalk	10 parts by weight
Resoprene	25 parts by weight

Ordinary commercial zinc dust even though it is not perfectly pure may be used. This same formula may be used for all other metals. If silver be substituted for the zinc in this formula a very heavy deposit will be obtained which will have the white frosted appearance of silver electroplating before burnishing. If gold be substituted for the zinc the deposit will be a light yellow but various shades down to a rich red have been obtained by varying the formula. The article which is to be plated with the powder does not have to be cleaned before the powder is applied for the powder itself acts as a cleaning powder and liberates the oxygen of an oxidized surface. The amateur who wishes to experiment with these powders should bear in mind that they have been patented abroad and that patents are pending in this country.

#### MAKING MILK ARTIFICIALLY

BY A. J. FARRER

We have heard so much about the synthetic production of perfumes, syrups, dyes and what not from coal tar products that we are not easily surprised by the information that milk may be artificially made. The method described below however is not a chemical one but consists merely in the mechanical admixture of distilled water with crushed and finely ground sweet almonds. Practically the only difference between cow's milk and that made of almonds is that cow's milk contains animal casein while the artificial milk contains vegetable casein. The latter will produce a good supply of cream and if allowed to stand some time will become sour. It may also be coagulated by the addition of a few drops of lemon juice. When combined with grape sugar it is capable of generating some extraordinary organic substances. The artificial milk may be used with tea and coffee in the same way that cow's milk is used.

To make the milk procure half a pound of sweet almonds—the Valencia which is cheaper than the Jordan almonds will give just as good results. The skin of the almonds may be removed by peeling the nuts in boiling water and peeling them with a sharp knife. The almonds should then be placed in a wooden chop-stick and chopped as finely as possible. Take about two ounces of the chopped almonds and place them in a mortar with a small quantity of distilled

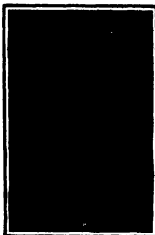
water and grind or levigate the chopped almonds adding water occasionally until about twelve ounces of water have been used. The longer the grinding is continued the thicker and richer will the milk be. Now take a piece of wire cloth about 14 inches wide by 14 inches long and rinse it in clean water and after wringing it as dry as possible fold it double over the top of a pitcher and pour the contents of the mortar through the cloth into the pitcher. The milk

may be squeezed through the cloth by wringing it gently as shown in one of the illustrations. The milk should be taken to prevent any of the larger almond particles from being forced through the meshes of the cloth.

If some of the milk thus produced is set aside for three or four hours a thick layer of cream will be found on the surface. If too much water has been used in forming the milk it may be necessary to add a little sugar of milk to sweeten it. The artificial milk has a slight almond flavor when taken clear but this is practically lost when it is used with tea or coffee or cocoa. The color of the cream produced is quite white and it may be improved by using some of the almonds without the skins removed in the proportion of two ounces of whole almonds to six ounces of the bleached almonds. Care must be taken to prevent any bitter almonds from finding their way into the mixture but one or two bitter almonds to half a pound would not affect the flavor of the milk. Half a pound of almonds will make three pints of milk.

#### HOW AN EXTRAORDINARY DEFENSIVE

BY J. F. HARRIS IN HIS CAPACITY AS A SPECIAL AGENT  
PICK UP YOUR COMMON HEAVY STONE SUCH AS GRAVEL OR COMPACT LIMESTONE. Lay it at the bottom of a vessel filled with a fluid transparent liquid. Common sense tells you that the stone will stay there. Modern



A COMMON HEAVY STONE FLOATING IN A GLASSFUL OF IODOFORM VAPOR

chemistry tells us that if the liquid has been selected for such a purpose the stone will spring up to the surface as if it had been forced into mercury instead of being immersed in what seems to be water.

Liquids which are denser than glass are not numerous. Leaving aside the metals mercury and gallium and the metalloids bismuth and selenium, the most interesting of such liquids are the aqueous solutions of the tungstoborates. Their density reaches 1.3 (saturated solution of calcium tungstoborate). An idea of the meaning of such a number can be gathered from the fact that a man with his shoes weighted so as to lower his center of gravity could stand erect in such a solution with more than half of his body out of it. The chemist Klein who studied the tungstoborates proposed to use them for

the purpose of making a liquid which would be denser than most of the liquids known to science. It is a liquid which is so heavy that it is almost impossible to lift it. It is a liquid which is so heavy that it is almost impossible to lift it. It is a liquid which is so heavy that it is almost impossible to lift it.

Sodium is the cheapest of the extremely light metals, but it is not the lightest. Lithium, a beautiful metal of most extraordinary properties, is the lightest. It is a metal which is so light that it is almost impossible to lift it. It is a metal which is so light that it is almost impossible to lift it. It is a metal which is so light that it is almost impossible to lift it.

Such extreme differences in density are not found among liquids yet organic chemistry gives us two colorless transparent liquids which so differ that a vessel filled with the lighter of them may be lifted by four men when filled with bromoform. The density of pentane is 0.6 that of bromoform 2.9. Such liquids are apparently more fluid than water and it is always anxious to watch the countenance of the unaware person who is requested to remove a glass full of bromoform from one place to another. Bromoform is sometimes prevented by physicians against whooping cough. It is found at every drug store and costs but \$1.18 a pound.

But it is with care that the greatest difference in density occurs. Iodoform vapor which causes the intense stench of that well-known antiseptic is 197 times heavier than hydrogen. When some iodoform is vaporized in a porcelain dish placed over an alcohol or gas lamp it is partially decomposed. Iodoform vapor is set free and remains mixed with iodoform vapor. As iodoform vapor is itself one of the heaviest of gases the experiment remains very beautiful. If the air is quiet a lateral jerk given to the dish causes the layer of violet gas to oscillate heavily just as a liquid would do in similar circumstances.

#### A SMALL ELECTRIC FURNACE

BY A. J. FARRER

The accompanying cut shows the cross section of a small electric furnace made from a description of the Melsan furnace. In this one the brick and lining are replaced by a block of limestone about 5 x 8 x 8 inches. In the top face of the base is a heavy cavity about 1 x 1 x 1 inches and two longitudinal grooves to receive the carbon rods.

The cover is a similar stone with a cavity hewn in its lower face. Both base and cover should be bound with a piece of sheet iron or tin to keep the pieces in place should the heat be great enough to crack the stones. The carbons are regulated by means of the vertical lever hinged at the base and attached to the carbon by means of a clamp. This clamp is attached to the lever at one place only. This allows



A SMALL ELECTRIC FURNACE

sufficient horizontal movement. The electrodes are connected to a lantern circuit (alternating current 215 volts) by means of clamps. These clamps and other metal work are made from sheet aluminum—easy to cut and easy to shape. The bolts used are short stove bolts.

In such a contrivance calcium chloride, calcium phosphate, phosphorus, brass and alloys are easily prepared.

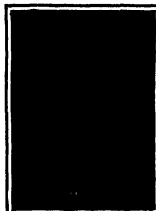
Calcium phosphide requires intense heat, the cavity should be small. The carbon or powdered is light carbon is best to use. Calcium phosphide is prepared by heating calcium oxide, carbon and red phosphorus. The phosphorus is placed in first in small quantity; this is covered by the other ingredients well mixed and pulverized. Some kinds of animal charcoal and calcium oxide will produce calcium phosphide.

Phosphorus is prepared as directed in Merrill by heating a phosphate, charcoal and sand. Phosphorus is separated and burns at the top. It sometimes solidifies on the floor of the stones and burns into flame when the cover is lifted. The flame is the sign of the phosphorus in the furnace. This is a satisfactory test. Pieces of porcelain are easily melted when pushed into this phosphoric mass.

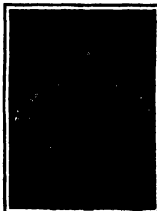
Brass is easily made by heating zinc and copper. The stones may be obtained from the same base of stone cutters. The cover of the furnace may be a good instrument for cutting the stones from the base. School Science and Mathematics.



Chopping the almonds.



Grinding the almonds in water.



Filtering the almond milk.

#### MAKING MILK ARTIFICIALLY

After grinding or levigating the chopped almonds adding water occasionally until about twelve ounces of water have been used. The longer the grinding is continued the thicker and richer will the milk be. Now take a piece of wire cloth about 14 inches wide by 14 inches long and rinse it in clean water and after wringing it as dry as possible fold it double over the top of a pitcher and pour the contents of the mortar through the cloth into the pitcher. The milk

may be squeezed through the cloth by wringing it gently as shown in one of the illustrations. The milk should be taken to prevent any of the larger almond particles from being forced through the meshes of the cloth.

If some of the milk thus produced is set aside for three or four hours a thick layer of cream will be found on the surface. If too much water has been used in forming the milk it may be necessary to add a little sugar of milk to sweeten it. The artificial milk has a slight almond flavor when taken clear but this is practically lost when it is used with tea or coffee or cocoa. The color of the cream produced is quite white and it may be improved by using some of the almonds without the skins removed in the proportion of two ounces of whole almonds to six ounces of the bleached almonds. Care must be taken to prevent any bitter almonds from finding their way into the mixture but one or two bitter almonds to half a pound would not affect the flavor of the milk. Half a pound of almonds will make three pints of milk.







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Ideal Lawn Mower-Grinder

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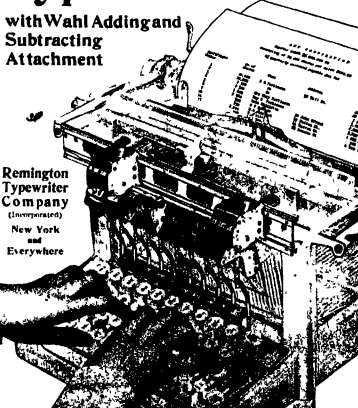
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# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

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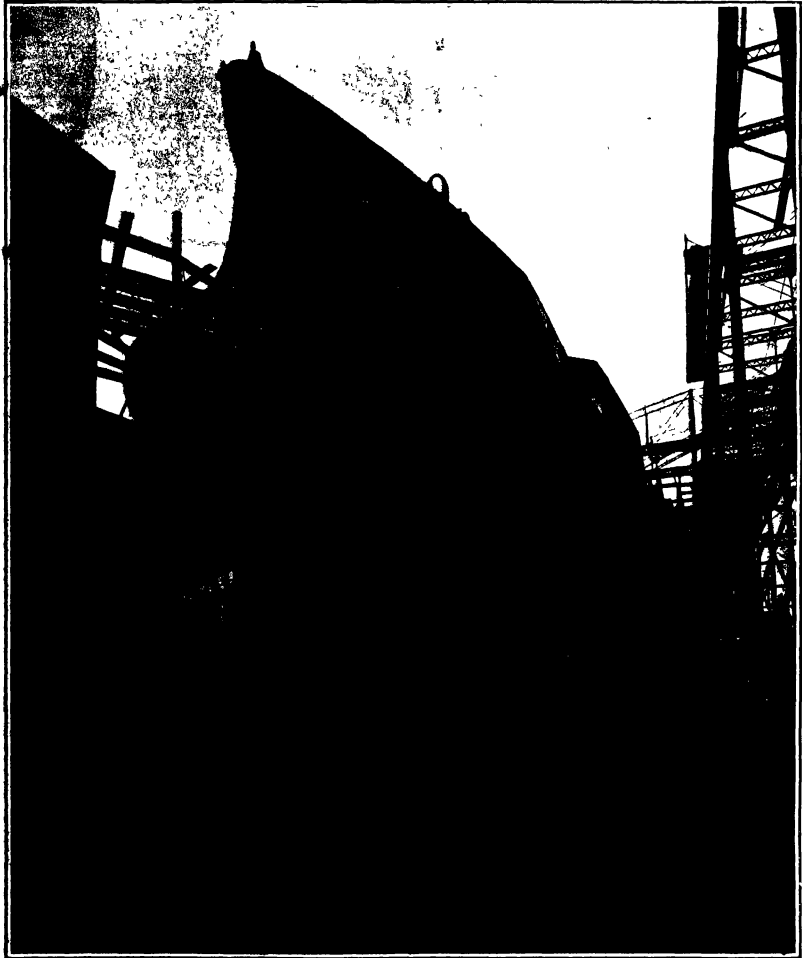
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A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS

Vol. CXL—No. 18.  
PUBLISHED WEEKLY

NEW YORK, MAY 7, 1910

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\$5.00 A YEAR.



The great length, 311 feet 6 inches, of the ship made it necessary to build the run here above one of the navy yard streets and railroad tracks, upon a special steel-and-timber bridge as shown above. The launching weight of the huge ship is 3,000 tons, as you also will note at the top.

Photograph by H. Montier

THE "FLORIDA" READY FOR LAUNCHING AT THE BROOKLYN NAVY YARD.—[See page 374.]





# AERONAUTICS.

Mr. A. L. Pittman has been making successful flights with his novel monoplane, which was illustrated in our issue of February 13th. In his latest flights on the April 15th he made sliding wingless short flights at the Buffalo Country Club, and in the fourth flight he ran across the field at a high rate of speed, rising to a height of ten or twelve feet, with a gust of wind struck the machine and drove it to the ground with great force. The aviator was bruised and badly shaken up, and his machine was more or less seriously damaged. Despite his accident, Mr. Pittman has demonstrated that his novel sliding wingless plane works well.

Messrs. A. M. Herring and W. B. Horgan have been experimenting with the former's new biplane on Plum Island, opposite Newburyport, Mass. This new machine, which was illustrated in our issue of March 19th, has demonstrated that it can slide over the ground and rise from its single slide without the use of wheels. On April 17th, Mr. Herring made a short flight of about 150 yards. On the 21st he made three other flights, in the longest of which he covered about 200 yards at a height of fifteen feet. The next day Mr. Crowley S. Curtis, while flying the machine at an estimated height of thirty feet, lost control of it. The biplane descended and struck the ground head on, sustaining in a soft meadow. It was badly smashed, but the aviator was not injured.

While aviation advances by leaps and bounds, aerostatics has had several setbacks. The German balloon "Pomernia," celebrated for having won the Bennett cup over in America in 1908, fell into the Baltic Sea and three of its four occupants, Herr Delbeck, a member of the Reichstag and Herr von Hagen, the first of the two, were drowned. The next day Prof. Abegg, a well-known German chemist, was killed while making a landing, while on the 18th not only the balloon "Pomernia" carrying the two men but during a thunder storm while at a height of several thousand feet, all its occupants being killed by the fall. It was at first supposed that the balloon was struck by lightning, but this was afterwards found not to be the case. Engineer Williams, however, has had a thorough investigation made and is getting together all the facts regarding the lighting of the gas in balloons by atmospheric electricity.

As far as dirigible balloons are concerned, Germany, which for some time past has been in the lead with this form of air craft, has also suffered severely after making various cruises in the vicinity of Cologne, the "Zeppelin II" was destroyed on April 1st, although down from that city to Hamburg on April 22nd and were reviewed by Emperor William. As a male agent up, the airship was moored at Hamburg over night. As strong winds were blowing, the "Zeppelin II" (which is a non-rigid dirigible) was deflated and shipped back by rail. The "Pomernia" and "Zeppelin II" attempted to make the return journey, but only the former was successful in accomplishing it. The "Zeppelin" lost gas and was forced to descend at Limburg, where it was moored again over night, and fully inflated in the morning. At noon a sudden squall of wind tore the huge dirigible from its moorings and it floated off down the river. A half hour later it was driven to the ground at Weilburg. It fell beside a cliff and broke in two. The sudden demoralization of this, the principal airship of the German fleet, has shown how precarious is the existence of these levitations of the air.

On April 21st Prof. John J. Montgomery, of Santa Clara College, Santa Clara, Cal., lectured before the Aeronautical Society in New York upon his aeroplanes experiments. These were begun in 1893, and Prof. Montgomery met with little success from the start after first trying a flapping-wing machine, he next built a monoplane glider having wings 10 by 4 1/2 feet in plan, and patterned after the wing of a bird with a downward curve in front. Upon running down hill with this first glider, he rose and glided 600 yards. He steered and maintained equilibrium by leaning his body to one side or the other. He was able to secure better control, and to this end studied the birds closely. He was able to determine just how they turn their wings. Then he built several machines with variable camber, and finally a flying wing in structure. He made scientific experiments upon the lifting power of curved surfaces; and he finally evolved a Langley-type variable glider having curved surfaces and a fixed vertical tail. In conjunction with a movable horizontal tail, this glider could be steered and that could be steered simply by warping the wings. This machine, piloted by Daniel Maloney, was out from a balloon at heights of 1,000 to 2,000 feet, and the aviator was able to pick a landing place and alight wherever he pleased. Prof. Montgomery secured a U. S. patent (No. 881,178) on September 18th, 1908, and in view of his practical demonstration of steering without the use of a vertical rudder, it would seem that this form of flying machine is the Wright brothers claim.

# ELECTRICITY

The Subway Telephone Construction Company of Chicago has promised to provide that city with a complete automatic telephone system by the first of June next year. At first it will cover only the business district, but later will be extended to the residential sections.

Merchants in the South have awakened to the need of rural telephone lines and are seeking to develop them, with a view to increasing their trade among the rural population in certain sections they have made large contributions to aid the farmers in building their lines.

The Weather Bureau has arranged to give daily weather forecasts by telephone to farmers in Texas. At noon each day rural subscribers are called up, and the weather forecast is announced to all simultaneously. Subscribers in towns and cities can obtain the weather forecast at any time of the day after 11 A. M. by calling up central.

A writer in *Physikalische Zeitschrift* has been investigating the frequency of electrical oscillations when a condenser is discharged through a spark gap. He finds that this depends to a large extent on the nature of the electrodes. For instance, a discharge between copper and silver electrodes would give a longer wave length than a spark between zinc electrodes, and he comes to the conclusion that magnesium is the most suitable metal for spark electrodes.

A new system of jointing lead cables has been developed in England. It consists in placing a thin ribbon of pure tin between the surfaces that are to be joined, and then heating them with a blow lamp. The surfaces in the presence of the tin melt at a lower temperature than normal, and they are soldered together. The tin ribbon is treated with a composition to prevent oxidation during heating. Another system of jointing consists in the application of a mold over the cable. A piece of tin ribbon is applied to the surface which is to be joined, and then molten lead is poured into the mold. The flow is so directed as not to burn through the lead sheathing of the cable.

The fourteen-year-old president of the Junior Wireless Club of America appeared before the Senate Committee on Commerce last week to protest against the bill introduced by Senator DeLoach for regulating wireless telegraphy. The young president gave a very forcible argument in favor of amateur wireless telegraphy, pointing out that the fact that the bill were passed it would check the inventive genius of some forty thousand experimenters. He also called attention to the fact that it would be impossible to enforce the bill without a veritable army of expert wireless telegraph engineers. The junior wireless telegraphers claim that it is possible to cut out interference if the proper apparatus is used, and that the present attack on amateur wireless telegraphers is unwarranted.

The Third Avenue Railroad Company of New York tried out last winter a gasoline-electric car on its crownpoint line. Now another type of car is being tried, and a comparison will be made of the two. The new car is a reconstructed horse car provided with Gould storage batteries and a pair of six horse-power motors. The battery is placed under the seats of the car and has a rating of 420 ampere-hours at 64 volts. It is made up of twenty-nine plates per cell, and there are forty-four cells at each side of the car. The gases that are generated by the battery are carried off by a ventilating system and exhausted under the rear platform. The car weighs only six tons fully loaded. It has been found to require in actual service only 0.84 watt hour per ton mile, while maintaining a speed of six miles per hour with nine stops per mile.

The steel hull of a vessel is rendered magnetic by the induction of the earth's magnetic field, and every steel vessel has to have its compass corrected to counteract its own magnetic force of force. The magnetic influence is further complicated by the lead carried by the vessel if this lead is magnetic, or capable of being magnetized. The accompanying vessels of the Great Lakes experience great difficulty on this account, and the United States Hydrographic Bureau is endeavoring to place pilots and captains of vessels plying in this trade here to check their course by means of the pelorus. The pelorus is an instrument similar to the sun dial, being provided with a gnomon and a graduated arc on which a shadow of the gnomon is cast. The pelorus is set in a north and south direction, as indicated by the compass, and then by noting the shadow on the graduated arc, it is possible to tell by comparison with tables, furnished by the government, just how far from the north and south position the compass really lies, thus showing the compass error.

# SCIENCE.

Prof. Adams, of the Mount Wilson Observatory, has been making a meteorological study of Italy's comet. He finds the head to be surrounded by a vastness of gas and the tail to be composed of hydrocarbons.

Sir Ernest Shackleton received a gold medal from the Geographical Society of Philadelphia at a dinner given in his honor on April 22nd. Sir Ernest's achievements were recognized in prize of Sir Ernest's achievements were such famous Arctic explorers as Rear Admiral George Melville and Amos B. Boscawen.

In an article published in *Light* Mr. Robert B. Livingston states that the first man to use gas in New York City was Mr. Samuel Leggett, who lighted his house at No. 7 Cherry Street with it. The people kept at a respectful distance from the house, fearing an explosion. Newport Rhode Island, and Baltimore Md., soon followed New York.

Rev. George M. Swack, Jr., secretary of the Phillips Weather Bureau has prepared at the request of the Insular government a paper on "The Return of Italy's Comet and Popular Apparitions" for distribution throughout the islands with a view of reassuring the natives, who, it is said, are already a prey to many wild rumors on this subject.

The American Philosophical Society of Philadelphia has decided to assist in the movement for an expedition for south-western exploration. The American Academy of Arts and Sciences American Geographical Society California Academy of Sciences, New York Academy of Sciences, Franklin Institute, Geographical Society of Philadelphia, American Museum of Natural History, Geological Society of America Association of American Geographers and the American Alpine Club.

In a lecture delivered before the Royal Society of Naples Prof. A. Platti called attention to the discovery by Plinius in 1861 of a characteristic line of helium in the flame spectrum obtained by heating in a flame "an amorphous, buttery substance of a yellow color which was found as a sublimate on the edge of a fumarole near the mouth of Vesuvius." This is generally accepted as the first discovery of helium, although Naeef and Andriani in 1868, on examining the flame spectrum of a large number of volcanic incrustations failed to recognize the presence of helium in the flame spectrum. It was not until examined under the condition described by Platti.

The Express of London claims that another word must be added to the dictionary of gardening. This is "Chloriculture," the name of an entirely new system of horticulture, which is being developed in France, and bids fair not only to replace the form of intensive culture of the French school, but to revolutionize the present system of fruit and vegetable forcing. While it is nearly customary to look for extreme and favorable developments in the line of soil cultivation, through French means, to us in the United States, who have not the garden habit quite so strongly as obtains in France, it comes as a surprise that the inventor of the new method is a Briton. Dr. F. Alexander Huxley, of the Royal Society.

For the last year systematic excavations have been made at Ostia, the ancient harbor of Rome at the mouth of the Tiber. The ruins of a large city built probably by Hadrian over the old republican town, have been uncovered. Archaeologists consider the discovery as important as those of Pompeii. Heretofore it has been held that the first city of Rome was founded by Romulus, the fourth King of Rome, that it was destroyed by Marcius during the civil wars, rebuilt during the republic, and then again destroyed, and was buried in the sand and despoiled in the 7th or 8th century. The new theory is that the city of Rome was founded by Marcius during the civil wars, rebuilt during the republic, and then again destroyed, and was buried in the sand and despoiled in the 7th or 8th century. The new theory is that the city of Rome was founded by Marcius during the civil wars, rebuilt during the republic, and then again destroyed, and was buried in the sand and despoiled in the 7th or 8th century.

A case of extraordinary if not unprecedented horizontal temperature gradient is reported on apparently trustworthy authority in the *Meteorologische Zeitschrift* for March 1910. With a temperature ranging between 0 deg. and +2 deg. C. at 16 kilometers from November 18th, 1909 a temperature of 20 deg. to 24 deg. C. was simultaneously recorded at a point only 10 kilometers distant to the north, a difference of about 20 deg. C. (68 deg. F.) in a distance of about 6 miles. While the climate at Helsingfors is tempered by the Gulf of Finland so remarkable a difference between the temperature of the air at the two stations is inexplicable especially as the two stations at which observations were made are of the same altitude. The strangest part of the story, however remains to be told. That a little in the way of a difference of about 10 deg. lower temperature was reported the weather was almost as warm as in Helsingfors.

## THE NICE AVIATION MEET

WITH DETAILS OF THE CROSS-COUNTRY RACE FOR THE LONDON DAILY MAIL'S \$50,000 PRIZE

One of the principal aviation meetings which has been held abroad this year was that at Nice from April 15th to 25th. Two of our illustrations show Farman biplanes that participated in this meeting. The one in flight over the sea was piloted by Duray, an old-time automobile racing driver, while the one which is shown on the beach was piloted by George Chavez (Chavez on the 17th ultimo accomplished several long flights above the sea. In one of these the first gave out and the machine landed on the beach, as shown). The meet opened under auspicious weather conditions and some splendid flights were made on the opening day. At one time in the afternoon four biplanes and a Hériot monoplane were all in the air at the same time. Edinoff, Chavez and Van den Horn, all of whom flew Farman biplanes, made some excellent flights. Rouger also made brilliant flights, on one occasion

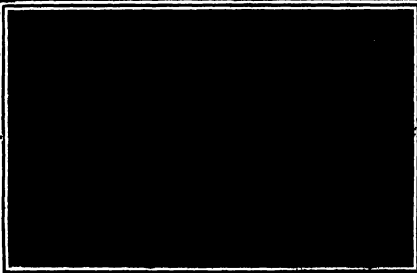
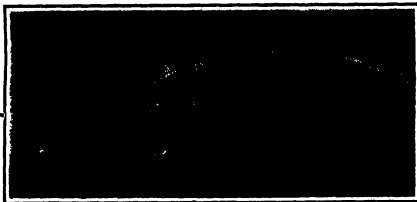
The results of the first day's flights in the various contests were as follows:

Total Distance Prize—Edinoff (Farman biplane), 130 716 kilometers (81 17 miles). Chavez (Farman biplane), 106 568 kilometers (66 33 miles). Van den Horn (Farman biplane), 87 508 kilometers (54 34 miles). Metrot (Voisin biplane), 18 kilometers (9 31 miles).

This competition was for the total distance flown in all flights made during the day by each competitor. Starting Prize, Without Passenger—Edinoff

to Manchester, England, on the 17th and 18th ultimo, for the prize of \$50,000 offered three years ago by the London Daily Mail. On April 18th Mr. Claude Grahame White, an Englishman, attempted the flight of his Farman biplane. After covering the 115 miles to Litchfield in 3 hours and 5 minutes, he quit battling with the violent wind and the cold. The next day his aeroplane was badly damaged by the wind while in its temporary shelter. It was taken apart and shipped back to London for repairs. Henry Wells and

actor Louis Paulhan visited London and entered the race. His Farman biplane arrived from France on April 17th, and after working hard all day at it, he got it assembled and started aloft at 5 31 P. M., flying immediately to Hampton (5 miles from London) and crossing the English line at 5 51. He had a bad cold to his waist, and he finished a



1. Chavez's wrecked Farman machine which dropped into the water when its fuel gave out. 2. Duray flying over the beachers in his Farman biplane. 3. A novel hydro-aeroplane fitted with a three-cylinder Anzani motor.

## THE AVIATION MEET AT NICE.

(Farman biplane), 80 meters (262 4 feet). Starting Prize, With Passenger—Edinoff, with Prince Koudachoff (175½ pounds), 100 meters (328 feet).

Prize for fastest circuit of the course, \$400. Won by Edinoff, who flew 8 kilometers (5 73 miles) in 6 minutes 33 3/5 seconds—a rate of 85 miles an hour. In this aviation meet over a dozen aviators competed, and many other flights were made.

The greatest sporting event that aviation has had thus far, as well as the chief demonstration of the practicability of the aeroplane for the rapid transportation of individuals, was the race from London

crossing the Var, and another time flying half a mile out to sea. Metrot flew for half an hour on his Voisin biplane, and Ollivier made several short flights in his Hériot monoplane, which appeared to interest the spectators more than the biplanes on account of its bird-like appearance. The English entrants in this meet, Messrs. Hawkinson and Rolle, were unfortunate. The first named was unable to fly more than half way around the track the first day on account of trouble with his Derruy motor, which he was using on his Henry Farman biplane while Mr. Rolle did not receive his Wright biplane from England.

The second day of the meet nearly all the aviators made excellent flights. Herr Gröber's monoplane failed to arrive and so he did not participate in the flights. Edinoff made a flight of 80½ miles, and Van den Horn flew 40 miles. Mr. Hawkinson made a daring flight out to sea. While turning above the water, he was approached too closely by Edinoff, the result being that although the two aeroplanes did not touch each other, Mr. Hawkinson fell into the sea, and was badly damaged. The Russian aviator was fined for faulty driving.

special train on the railway 1,000 feet below.

Soon after Paulhan started, word was brought to White, who had completed the repairs to his machine and who was resting at the hotel. Rushing in an automobile to his aeroplane, he started at 6 23 from Wormwood Scrubs in pursuit of Paulhan. But the latter had gained an hour's flying time before darkness settled down, and he alighted at Litchfield at 8-10 hours as the 16 gallons of gasoline he carried were entirely consumed.

White alighted at Benda, near Northampton, after a flight of 1 hour and 23 minutes in which he covered 80 miles. He started again at 2 54 A. M., and succeeded in getting within about 15 miles of Litchfield before Paulhan again resumed his journey. He flew over Weedon, Crick, and Rugby in the darkness, and alighted at Peterborough, nearly 100 miles from London, after an hour's flight. Late in the afternoon he flew 10 to 12 miles farther, but the race practically ended for him at Peterborough. The conditions required the flight to be made within 84 hours and with not more than two stops en route. Paulhan

(Continued on page 373)

# **UNUSUAL SPINAL ARCH OF THE BAKIMO SNOW HOUSE.**

By A. A. KENNEDY, GRADUATE OF ARCHITECTURAL UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.

There is a type of dome that can be built without a scaffolding and that requires a man to be immersed within the vault to insure proper construction. It is the invention and sole property of that most ingenious of surveyors, the Bakimo, and contains several principles new to civilized architecture.

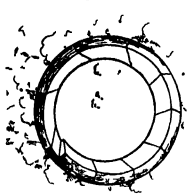
There are four fundamental types of arch and dome, of which one is the Bakimo peculiarity. The simplest and least used, because least effective is of the simple hoop-to type—illustrated by and today chiefly employed for the house of cards. Next comes the false inverted-arch arch where each block or brick projects beyond the one below and is held from toppling in by the weight of the material above and behind it. This type of gateway and chamber was invented independently by the architects of Agamemnon more than 3,000 years ago in ancient Greece and the precursors of the Aztecs in Mexico at nearly an early period. This construction inherently demands a vast amount of backing or fill in proportion to the vault of the arch. It is feasible for a gate in a long wall, or for an underground hall or drain but cannot stand alone and is a false arch. A free portal, or a dome rising into the air cannot be built on this principle, though it is consequently but little employed today. Our true arch embodies the third method its essential feature being the use of wedge-shaped blocks. When the last and central one of these most important—the keystone—is dropped into place the whole mass supports itself. The top cannot fall inward unless the supports are toppled outward. The primary thrust is therefore all ways not in but out and buttressing of some sort is essential. Another inherent defect of this arch though we are so accustomed to it that we do not usually notice it, but is that until the keystone is fitted into final position a temporary structure must be erected to hold up the parts already in place. The last type the Bakimo vault is a true dome, erected outward thrust and requires no temporary scaffolding. It is also unique in that its keystone is not brick or stone, but snow.

The construction is used for the best-shaped winter houses of these so-called arctic peoples and is spiral in plan as shown by the diagrams. A row of blocks is first laid on the ground in a circle or more exactly a polygon. Each of these has a slight slant top and each thus raises its surface a little beyond the last until when the circle is completed the gap in height between the last and first blocks gives the thickness for the following courses. In this plan and lower surface of each block are parallel as in a brick but the gradual upward trend given by the first course is of necessity maintained.

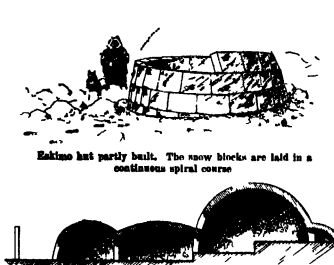
In each successive round the snow bricks are leaned inward more by having their lower surfaces sloped off to a level. If set squarely end to end they would before long lean inward so far that they would tumble. For this reason the end of the block last laid is cut at an angle. The next following block has the joining end slanted at the reverse angle. Thus it fits in behind the preceding and is prevented by it from slipping inward. As the house grows the circles become smaller until at last only an irregular polygonal opening is left. This is filled with a wedge-shaped block cut to shape. It is however not a keystone as the remainder of the structure supports itself.

The blocks of firm snow are usually dressed outside and handed for placing to the man on the inside. The last block he holds up with one hand alone to shape with his ivory knife in the other, and drops into position. He is then entirely inclosed in the vault. Only after the house itself is entirely completed does he cut out the low door, which to keep out the cold as much as possible is only big enough to crawl through. A long low tunnel is then built in front of the door, to break the force of the Arctic's icy blasts. When a visitor is present, a small aperture is cut out over the door and filled with a pane of clear ice. All that is omitted is the fire or chimney. Whatever heat is produced by the sealed furnace is wanted inside, warmth being a more serious necessity in the climate than ventilation or freedom from smoke.

Whether the type is practicable in other materials has been doubted. The unsurpassed lightness of snow is certainly a great advantage. In heavier materials strength would, however, compensate for increased stress of gravity, and good mortar should make up



Plan view of partly built hut, showing how each block supports the next.



Section through Bakimo snow house.  
THE UNUSUAL SPINAL ARCH OF THE BAKIMO SNOW HOUSE.

for the inward slipping tendency that a lighter material would show.

The greatest difficulty in working in stone would be encountered in shaping the separate pieces of masonry. Owing to the spiral and leaning construction no two blocks can be exactly alike in either size or shape and in every succeeding course each block becomes more and more from the right angle in its proportions. To compute in advance exactly the proper angle for each piece so to insure its joints would be a matter of much complex mathematical calculation.

It might however be practicable once the dimensions had been determined for a building of standard size to draw up a table of the angles and dimensions required for each successive block. If the size of the structure were reduced or increased from the stand-

ard each stone would only require to be diminished or enlarged by a fixed ratio.

It would take our ablest engineers longer to plan such a dome than an Eskimo would need to build a village, but the resulting simplicity of construction due to the inevitableness and simplicity of the program of erection without any temporary supports but trusses or reinforcement might more than compensate.

The spirally ascending bevel locking Eskimo dome is the only true vault any part or the whole of which will stand entirely by itself.

## **A GASOLINE MOTOR DRIVEN EARTH-BORING MACHINE.**

The details of construction and method of operation of a unique gasoline motor-driven earth-boring machine are shown in the accompanying illustration. The device was recently designed in California by Charles I. Blair and the photograph presents it in working position in actual operation at Barmanito and near Helena (Cal.).

It is stated that with one of these machines about 25 miles of holes were bored for use in tunneling along the right-of-way of the Western Pacific Railroad between Marysville and Oroville (Cal.). These holes were bored under particularly trying conditions as the ground was gumbo land with the exception of a short stretch of marsh soil and so hard and so dry that every bit of it had to be broken with pick and crowbar when dug by hand. Part of it. In addition to the hard ground had about 20 to 30 per cent small rubble yet this labor-saving device bored through all of it and did the work of five men in twelve to fifteen minutes.

Such a machine is of great value for log holes for posts for numerous other uses for which shallow holes are required. Used for the purpose of lightening the labor of man, experience shows that the harder the ground and the more difficult it is to work the more accurately a machine of this class is desired.

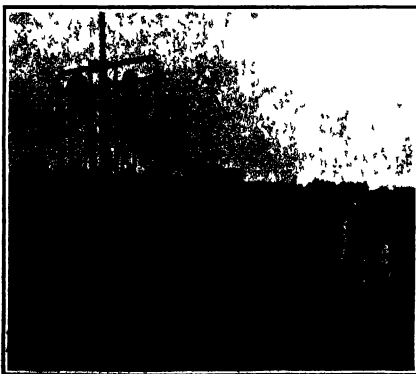
This entirely new, unique and practical auger-driven apparatus is a most remarkable device in its simplicity owing to its widespread use as a labor saver. It stands out as a surprise. It will be seen that it is extremely simple, easily operated and entirely practical and will be found a most economical and money saving piece of equipment. It is a simple machine with no moving parts except the motor which is a 1-horse power motor or where trees and vines are to be planted in holes uniform in size at top and bottom and of uniform diameter and depth. It is held to be practical for use in either dry or wet soil and in any place where the machine can be driven as it has been readily through hardpan and shale, soft sandstone and small rubble and as it will bore at different angles and on either side or back of the truck it will do equally good work whether on level ground, uneven ground or on hillside.

Mr. R. C. Blair (at a great number of holes was bored in very hard hardpan for large poles) has been particularly successful in this work because the contrast between his soft clay and hard hardpan was so strongly marked. At Mendota (Cal.) a record was made by one of these machines on large size work in hard dry earth 90 holes being bored 7 1/2 ft apart and 30 inches deep in 10 consecutive minutes. The hole 1 1/2 in. x 1 1/2 in. in diameter.

For use in boring small holes a vertical engine of the double cylinder type is utilized that develops 7 1/2 horse power. In boring holes for large poles a machine of this type is fitted with an 18-inch auger effecting a depth of 40 feet. The power is supplied in this case by a double cylinder gas line engine of 12 horse power capacity.

This device is said to be the best power to operate as a man and a boy only are required for its efficient working, the boy to drive the team and the man to manage the machine. Its net earning capacity is said to be greater than that of a threshing machine costing five times as much. Its season of usefulness extends over the entire year and in many instances in hard ground has done the work of fifteen men.

It is maintained that in cold countries where other farm work



WORKING POSITION OF EARTH-BORING MACHINE READY TO BORE A HOLE.



# Correspondence.

## WHY WATCH SPRINGS BREAK.

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN:—  
It was with an amateur's interest that I read the discussion in your pages as to "Why watch springs break." As the question apparently still remains unsettled, I felt tempted to contribute some additional views on the subject.

Formerly clock springs were finished very rough, giving the convolutions considerable frictional grip upon each other. For this reason, when running down, there was a very sudden stoppage of the clock every few minutes, indicating the propelling force was spasmodic. Not only so, but the ticking sound of the escapement decreased in loudness as the time was prolonged from the last loosening of the coil. To regulate this it occurred to me to apply a more uniform lubricant to the spring to prevent the said friction. The result of so doing was a gratifying uniformity of tick—but only for a few hours—until the spring broke.

After the third experience of this kind I ceased to regard it as a mere coincidence, and thereafter applied no oil if there was sufficient to prevent rubbing already on the steel.

The uncoiling of a watch spring and of the kind of clock spring that has just been described differs in that the watch spring uncoils at the coil, while the clock spring uncoils at the ends, winds from the center of the coil. For this reason the latter is not subjected to a breaking from contraction due to cold, as there is always some room for the contraction to take place—excepting the possible momentary period just after winding. The same is not the case with a watch spring.

If over-lubrication is destructive to the structure of steel in a clock spring, by rendering it too convoluted continually active and under unremittent strain, the same would also apply to a watch spring. Watch springs being smaller than those intended for clocks are naturally proportionately stronger, may endure the strain longer, but that it is detrimental is probable. But all on a watch spring is absolutely necessary solely to provide for this thermometric movement which an only take place by rendering it to and from a fixed point—the arbor. Yet the wearing strain on a spring due to over-lubrication can only be a contributory cause to the prevalent breaking of this part. Six persons go to show the clock, and the spring breaks for breakage is from an hour to three hours after winding, and that the most frequent position of fracture is just outside of the annealed tip attached to the arbor.

Thus the owner takes his watch from his pocket where its temperature was, say 80 deg., and winds it until it brings up hard. The coil is then central and solid upon its arbor, which is held fast by a pawl and ratchet.

In a little while the wearer of the watch contains the watch removes it, hanging it on the back of a chair while he returns for the night. The temperature of the watch gradually falls to say 50 deg. Line contraction has been provided for. The morning will disclose. If the coil has not been wound too tightly on, if some time has elapsed before cooling to enable it to draw on what has been paid out, or even if the rate of cooling and consequent contraction has not exceeded the rate of release due to the movement of the works, the spring may escape. Just what surprised the writer is not the breakage but the length of service many springs attain.

When one considers that the greatest movement of contraction is on the outside of the coil, because of its greater area, that the coil is under a tremendous strain and rigid by winding, and that then a powerful contracting force is added thereto, principally on the outside of the circle where the leverage is greatest, it is not difficult to realize that a spring stretched to such takes place close to the fulcrum, the arbor, for the spring is then but a solid lever.

The fracture of a spring in many places is also not hard to understand. If we imagine a spring stretched to its elastic limit by contraction from cold with no slack to draw upon, each turn of the spring, from the outside inward, is an ever-increasing tension. An inner turn snaps, instantly contracting, and the outer turn increases the spreading or expanding trend of its temper. The change is altogether too rapid to permit of any uncoiling movement, and the force thus added to the adjacent surrounding strand fractures that, gathering force with each succeeding fracture until, like a "Prince Rupert's drop," the penultimate strain comes to rest with explosive suppression.

That the plume display mechanism does not necessarily indicate that it was produced from external influence, but rather that it was evolved by excessive strain and retained by the steel by virtue of its hardness, is as plainly evidenced by many machine's parts subjected to stress.

Regarding the preference of springs to break in the

summer months, is it not sufficiently evident from the following three causes?

1. The more constant and wearing strain due to the better lubricating effect of warm oil.  
2. The increased solidity of the coil when wound up, due to a thinner film of oil between the convolutions also due to warmth.

3. The looser texture and greater proportional shrinkage of a warm spring compared with a cool one. As to the remedy for the uncertainty of time-keeping, it would seem sufficient to provide for the longitudinal expansion and contraction of the springs, and the simplest way would be to make them of metal insensitive to these changes. Such an alloy has been discovered in Germany, *Ausdauer* (Bavarian) No. 1714, by M. Gullauze, which he calls "Invar" and is composed of steel with an admixture of 38 per cent nickel. It is used for spiral springs, pendulums and graduated scales for instruments. The fact that it does not rust should complete its adaptability to this purpose, as then it could be used without lubricant and thus, except for a short portion at one time, be relieved of continuous and active strain.

Just how the nickel compound will affect its permanency of temper remains to be proven, but even if it retains sufficient resiliency for its purpose for five years only, it would at least warrant of its wearing strength and not leave its owner in the lurch, which is perhaps all the improvement needed.

Another possible remedy which modern practice would indicate is to make the watch spring to be carbonized, the coils or plates, from which the spring is rolled, from one side only. The result would be, when chilled, a hard side (for the inner side) and a soft or relatively tough side (for the outer side) with a general benefit of greater spring power with improved tensile strength.

Watchmakers will tell you that the breaking of main springs saves many good watches from having their pivots cut off, from other wear, and the views of the manufacturer need not be consulted but the ordinary citizen would prefer to have the spring as reliable as the rest of the watch. JAMES E. PAXSON.

St. John N. B.

## INTERESTING MAGIC SQUARE.

To the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

In the December 11th issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN (page 418) Mr. A. Gelpi gives an interesting construction of magic squares, containing all the odd

42	54	36	18	1	74	66	38	20
54	44	36	19	11	8	75	67	30
66	54	37	20	21	18	8	76	70
72	50	47	20	31	28	15	7	40
72	65	57	40	41	37	25	17	9
8	75	67	50	51	43	35	27	10
12	4	77	60	61	50	45	38	20
20	14	8	70	71	65	45	35	20
30	24	10	8	81	64	50	48	30

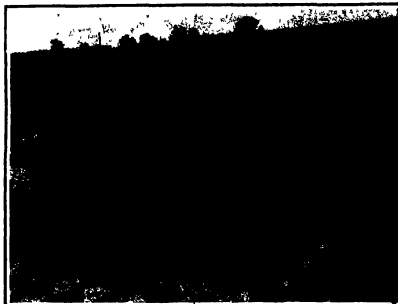
# REINFORCED CONCRETE WATER WORKS CONSTRUCTION

BY FRANK C. PERKINS

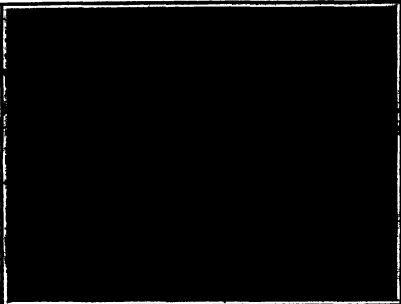
The accompanying views of the Indianapolis water works show an interesting application of reinforced concrete to this class of construction. A gravity sump supplies the reinforced concrete filter plant from the Indiana State Central Canal which was constructed originally by the State for transportation purposes, but was taken over for water works service. At a dis-

A reinforced concrete pipe line which is 640 feet in length, and has a diameter of 48 inches, and a shell 6 inches thick, conducts the raw water to the precipitation basin. The pipe is laid 11 feet below the hydraulic gradient. It is reinforced with  $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch twisted bars spaced 8 inches on centers, the shell of the pipe being built in three operations.

are 8 inches in width and 15 inches deep. They are carried on 18-inch I-beams, incased in concrete and bolted to the columns. The reinforced partition walls, 1 foot thick, are 350 feet in length. They are reinforced in both directions, and measure 14 to 17 feet in height. The entire slab covers 70,000 square feet in each double filter. It is built monolithic, without



View showing construction of the groined-arch floor, with the reinforcement and forms in place



Operating floor of the chemical house in which the water is purified in lime and iron saturating tanks.

tance of about 6 miles above the intake to the filters are located the head gates and concrete siltway ways of this canal which is carried over Falls Creek near the filter plant in an open aqueduct at an elevation of about 16 feet above the creek.

The chemical house columns, floors and walls as well as stairways and roof are of reinforced concrete throughout. The lower part of the building contains the lime saturating tanks over which are constructed the iron solution tanks all of which are of concrete. They are used in connection with the coagulating basins in the treatment of the raw water during seasons of excessive turbidity.

The following account of these works is based upon data furnished by the constructing engineer, William Curtis Maboe. The water, which is drawn from the Raw River is clarified by coagulation in precipitation basins, which are provided with baffle walls spaced 70 feet apart, and which are reinforced for the prevention of cracks. A 4-inch slab of concrete, reinforced with twisted rods spaced 4 feet apart in each direction is used for filling the sloping embankments of earth while the slab floor, laid in blocks 8 feet square, is 4 inches in thickness.

The water is measured in a Venturi meter, 42 inches in diameter, which has a throat diameter of 21 inches. The meter is built in the raw water conduit, the indicating apparatus being located in the laboratory.

In the construction of the conduit a concrete cradle 18 inches wide was first laid to grade. In this were imbedded the lower rods, which were heated and bent in the field to the required shape, and left long enough to project a foot into the upper ring. On the cradle were then placed the semi-circular metal forms, which were braced down by staked timbers. The mixture of cement, in the proportion of 4 of gravel, 3 of sand, and 1 of cement, was poured into the space forming the lower half of the pipe. The upper half was then constructed by inverting the metal forms. The cost of the pipe, which contained about 300 cubic yards of concrete, was \$12.46 per cubic yard.

The pure water reservoir, with a capacity of  $\frac{1}{4}$  million gallons, was built near Falls Creek, on a gravel foundation, at ordinary ground water level. The earth filling is 2 feet deep on the cover, the weight of the structure itself overcoming any upward pressure that may occur. The groined arch bottom was designed to resist the upward thrust of high ground water at such times as the reservoir is empty, the inverted groined arch construction distributing the load uniformly over the bottom. The reinforcement of the bottom consists of  $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch twisted bars, spaced 10 inches on centers in each direction.

The filter cover consists of reinforced 8-inch slabs, supported by concrete beams, a trifle less than 30 feet long, and spaced nearly 7 feet on centers. The beams

any attempt to provide expansion joints. A cable tramway with a span of 450 feet was used in the construction. A stationary engine and cable was used for propelling a shuttle car on a narrow-gauge track, over which the concrete was handled from the mixer to the railway, 80 cubic yards per day being used in covering 5,000 square feet of surface. The cost of the filter covers was \$14.65 per cubic yard, and the cost of the walls \$12.06.

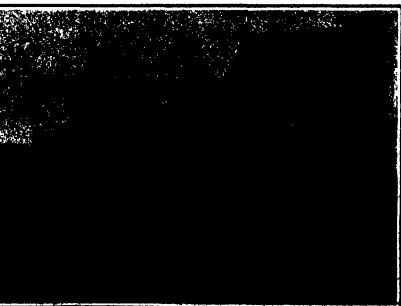
The reinforced concrete aqueduct, 300 feet in length, contains 4,500 cubic yards of concrete, which cost \$8.53 per cubic yard including the cement, steel, sand and gravel, as well as the lumber, forms, labor, and concrete labor. It is 41 feet wide and has four spans of 40 feet each with a 16-foot rise from the springing line to the soffit, and a crown thickness of 18 inches for each of the four segmental arches.

The foundations for the piers, wing walls and abutments were carried down 16 feet below low water, and rest upon a bed of sand and gravel. The aqueduct takes the place of a wood aqueduct, which was supported by steel trusses on masonry piers, all of which were carried away by a flood which undermined the middle pier, the superstructure breaking up as the substructure crumbled away.

With regard to the use of concrete for works of this character, Mr. Maboe, the constructing engineer of these water works, makes the following comments:



Steel reinforcement of the 66-inch conduit.



The concrete plant used for mixing the concrete.

REINFORCED CONCRETE WATER WORKS CONSTRUCTION.

Concrete has many advantages over other types of construction. It is easily and conveniently handled and transported, often being cast in situ. Stone masonry, and often suitable sand and gravel for the work in hand can be found on the site. With proper supervision, skilled labor is not essential in the usual work, moreover, the art of mixing and handling concrete has been so perfected that machines do most of the work. Concrete has the additional advantage over stone that it may be molded into intricate shapes.

To produce concrete surfaces of a satisfactory smoothness and uniformity, it is necessary that the molds be carefully and properly built, and also that the concrete be of the proper consistency to flow readily into the prepared molds. It is also necessary to thoroughly churn and keep it in motion in the molds until the air has been removed and every cavity filled with mortar. Properly handled in this manner, it will not be necessary to brush or plaster the work after the removal of the forms. Concrete may be placed in moderately freezing weather, provided proper precautions are taken to warm the gravel or stone and sand, to heat the water and to cover the work until initial set takes place.

The problem of preventing ugly cracks forming in concrete is one that has worried many engineers. Plain concrete is liable to crack where you least expect it, and it has become the practice to provide for these cracks by building short sections in alternate blocks. However, by the judicious introduction of steel bars, objectionable contraction cracks can be entirely eliminated.

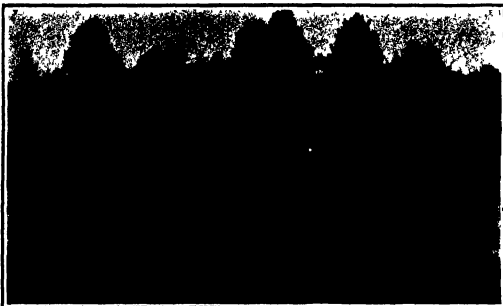
The water works engineer or superintendent is particularly interested in the subject of waterproofing concrete. It has been shown that wet concrete is more dense and consequently more impervious than dry concrete and that concrete becomes more or less porous as the quantity of cement is increased or diminished. A smoothly troweled surface produces a water-tight film or skin. It has also been found that slaked lime added to the concrete mixture helps to make it less permeable. The lime does not injure the cement in any way, although retarding the setting

time. Coal tar, pitch and asphalt mixtures applied on concrete are used with more or less success. A wash composed of one pound of tar, five pounds of alum and two gallons of water, applied with a brush and well rubbed in, has been used successfully on government fortifications.

A rich cement mortar plastered over concrete makes a very good waterproofing medium. Proper attention to these details will produce a water-tight structure, if there is not likely to be contraction cracks, but in works of any magnitude these are bound to occur and they can be best provided against by the introduction of steel bars. A rich concrete properly rein-

forced, as explained above, could be used to bring the color of an illuminant into near agreement with daylight, though reducing its intensity in doing so. Mr. Ives presents some spectrophotometric curves of natural sources of light, and a diagram illustrating the amount and nature of light from the various sources which must be absorbed to produce white light. He also tabulates the "daylight efficiency" of a number of artificial illuminants. The method, however, is of practical rather than of scientific interest since it depends upon the particular wavelength for which the intensity is assumed to be unity, when plotting the spectrum curves. In addition, "selective" sources such as the mercury arc lamp which yields a spectrum consisting of isolated bright lines, would work out to zero efficiency according to the above method. Yet, if we judge by sensation such sources contain a certain amount of white light. Mr. Ives then proceeds to discuss a second method based on the fact that any color can be matched by a mixture of white light and one ray of the spectrum. The ratio of the white light used in attaining such a match to the intensity of the source studied is then regarded as an alternative method of defining white light efficiency which Mr. Ives in this case terms "white sensation efficiency." He points out that classification on this method gives rise to materially different results from those arrived at by the former method. The efficiency in the case of the second method appears to be higher. Yet the result gives no indication of the ability of the source to reveal colors of surrounding objects, and merely indicates the color of a white surface illuminated by the source. In conclusion, Mr. Ives remarks that the first method is preferable from the practical standpoint, and the latter from the purely scientific one.

It is estimated that the Gold Coast and Ashanti could supply 60,000 tons of mahogany and cedar per year if the internal communication were better. With mechanical haulage, such as traction engines and light railways, the output could be increased to some 250,000 tons per annum without depleting the natural reserves.



Covered reservoir under construction, showing the ground floor, the reinforced slab roof, and the supporting columns.

forced, coated with plaster and troweled smooth makes an ideal waterproof structure.

**The Daylight Efficiency of Artificial Illuminants.**  
In a recent publication of the Bureau of Standards, Mr. H. E. Ives suggests that there is need of some method of estimating the resemblance of artificial illuminants to daylight that is, of determining their daylight efficiency. Assuming that, by the extraction of certain qualities of light in an illuminant its color could be brought to resemble that of daylight very closely, the daylight efficiency of a source might be expressed in the form (intensity of available white light)/(total intensity of source). Mr. Ives suggests two methods of studying this question. The first is based upon the use of suitable absorbing screens



Adjusted by which the water is conducted to the filter plant of the Indianapolis water works.

The architectural possibilities of reinforced concrete are shown in this graceful, arched aqueduct.

REINFORCED CONCRETE WATER WORKS CONSTRUCTION.

## THE HEAVENS IN MAY

BY HENRY NORRIS RUSSELL

**I**T is seldom that so much of interest to the amateur astronomer happens in a single month as in the one which is just before us.

First an eclipse, of course, is the return of Halley's comet to the position where it is seen to the best advantage. Early in the month it is favorably placed for observation before day break, on the 18th it passes directly between us and the sun, and later it appears to even greater advantage in the evening sky.

At the beginning of May the comet is about 74 million miles away, but it approaches us rapidly, its distance diminishing to 41 million miles on the 16th, and 27 million on the 14th. As it was about at the limit of visibility to the naked eye on April 15th, while still 115 million miles from us, it is now a fairly conspicuous object.

The planet Venus is fortunately near by and serves as an excellent "pointer" to the comet. Anyone, however little familiar with the heavens, can easily find the latter by observing the following directions:

Choose a window from which the eastern sky is visible clear down to the horizon. Rise about 9:15 A. M. and look due east. The very bright starlike object, low down in the sky, is Venus. The comet is to the left of this and a little higher up, at a distance about as great as the length of the bowl of the Great Dipper. It will probably be rather fainter than the four stars, forming a great square, which lie above and to the left of Venus, about twice as far away as the comet.

These directions hold good from May 1st to May 15th. On the 14th the comet will be on a level with Venus, and a little farther to the left. On the 16th it will be much lower than the planet and about 30 deg. to the left. After this the comet, or at least its head, can hardly be seen clear of the morning twilight.

It will be very interesting to watch the comet grow larger and brighter night by night as it comes nearer to us. How long this will be it is impossible to predict. The best time to see this however, will in any case be from the 7th onward, when the moon is out of the way and the sky dark. The comet will be larger and brighter, too, at this time than previously.

Even after the head gets too near the sun to be seen, the tail may be observable in the mornings of the 17th and 18th extending upward and to the right from the eastern horizon, perhaps broad and fan-shaped, from the effects of perspective. Since the end of it will be much nearer us than the head, it will be comparatively brightly illuminated separated by an interval while we are in the darker center of the tail. Meanwhile, observers on the opposite side of our planet will have the rare privilege of seeing the sun through the comet's head. Only the extreme western portion of the United States is included in

this favored region, but as the comet enters upon the sun's disk at 6:23 P. M. by Pacific standard time and remains on it till 7:23, the transit will be visible all along the coast. The comet passes almost squarely across the center of the sun from west to east.

Paradoxical as it may seem, it is probable that the ordinary observer, even with a small telescope and dark glasses, will not be able to detect even the slightest trace of the comet's passage. With powerful instruments the nucleus, if solid, might be seen as a dark spot against the sun, if it is over 50 miles in diameter, but it is improbable that it is anything like so large, for, as has already been stated in these columns, the whole amount of light reflected from the comet, when remote from the sun, is no more than a single mass 30 miles across would send us.

It is possible, too, that the absorption of the gases composing the envelope of the head and the tail may be detected by means of the spectroscopic, and as we will be looking through the tail lengthwise,

the sun on the 21st and of the moon on the 23rd. The former is an important eclipse, the maximum duration of the total phase being over four minutes, but unfortunately the track of the shadow lies almost entirely in the Southern Ocean, only crossing the southern half of Tasmania, so that few stations are available for observers. As a partial eclipse it is visible throughout Australia, New Guinea, and the neighboring islands.

The lunar eclipse of the 3rd is of more interest to us, being visible throughout the United States, excepting Alaska. The moon enters the earth's penumbra at 9:15 eastern standard time, and first touches the shadow at 10:44. At nine minutes after midnight she disappears in it completely, and does not emerge till 1 A. M. At the middle of the eclipse, however, her southern edge is only about 300 miles inside the shadow, so that it will be considerably illuminated by sunlight refracted through our atmosphere. At 3:30 A. M. the moon takes leave of the shadow entirely, and at 4:25 of the penumbra. This eclipse will be of importance to observers on the Pacific coast, as it will give them a chance to photograph Halley's comet on a dark sky. The comet will have set before the end before twilight comes on.

## THE HEAVENS

With so much else to engage our attention, our glance at the stars must be short. The most prominent constellations in the west are Gemini and Cassiopeia, in the north-west, Auriga, due north, Cassiopeia below the Pole, Ursa Minor and Draco above, and the Great Bear almost overhead. In the north-east Lyra is prominent, and in the east Hercules, Corona and Boötes. Scorpio is rising in the south-east. Due south is Virgo. As our initial show, there is at the beginning of the month the slightest resemblance in the stars to the figure for which they were named.

We may note the bright star Spica, a spectroscopic binary at a great distance from us, and the double star  $\gamma$  (now close to Jupiter) which is now separable with a small telescope, but in 1855 could hardly be seen double with the largest instruments then existing. The two components were then at the closest point of the very eccentric orbit, in which they revolve about one another in some 180 years.

## THE PLANETS

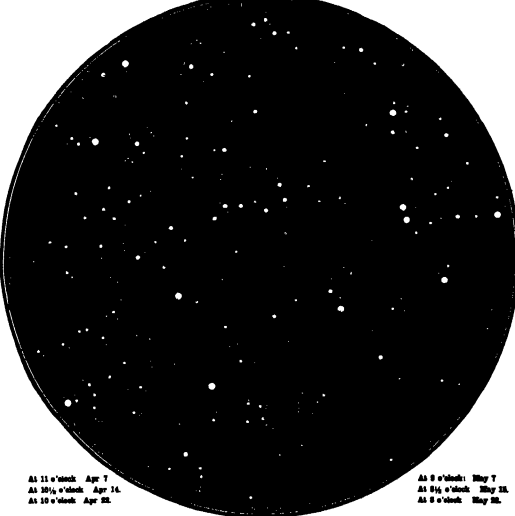
Mercury is evening star until the 25th, when he passes through inferior conjunction, between us and the sun, and becomes a morning star. He can be best seen at the beginning of the month, about 1½ hours later than the sun. At this time he is in Taurus between Aldebaran and the Pleiades, and should be easy to see.

Venus is morning star, rising a little after 3 A. M. and exceedingly conspicuous all through the month. Mars is evening star in Gemini, setting about 10:30 P. M. in the middle of the month, at which time he is quite close to the star  $\gamma$  (Gemini) (observers see map).

Jupiter is well past opposition, but is visible most of the night, remaining in sight till nearly 4 A. M. on the 1st, and till a little before 3 A. M. on the 15th. Saturn is morning star in Aries, rising about an hour earlier than the sun in the middle of the month and two hours at the end; but it is too low to be conspicuous.

Uranus is in Sagittarius, and comes to the meridian at 4 A. M. on the 19th. Neptune is in Gemini, observable most of the night. On the 25th he is in conjunction with Mars, being 1 deg. 58 min. south of the latter. This may be a good chance for amateurs with

(Continued on page 382.)



NIGHT SKY: APRIL AND MAY

At 11 o'clock Apr 7  
At 10½ o'clock Apr 14  
At 10 o'clock Apr 21

At 9½ o'clock April 28

At 9 o'clock May 7  
At 8½ o'clock May 14  
At 8 o'clock May 21

If this evening is clear it will be of great interest and importance to look for illumination of the sky. In the early evening, just after sunset, the comet's tail will be in the east, but a few hours later it will have passed over toward the west. If, as is sometimes supposed, the tail is a hollow cone of light, there will be two times at which the sky is generally comparatively brightly illuminated separated by an interval while we are in the darker center of the tail. Meanwhile, observers on the opposite side of our planet will have the rare privilege of seeing the sun through the comet's head. Only the extreme western portion of the United States is included in

nearly 15 million miles of it will be there to exert any possible effect on the sun's light. Even so, it will not be surprising to many astronomers if nothing unusual is detected.

Such negative results will however be scientifically valuable, since they will enable us to say that the materials composing the comet do not exceed certain limits of mass or density.

Transits of comets across the sun are very rare. The most remarkable previous instance is that of the great comet of 1862, which, though so bright that it could be seen close to the sun in broad daylight with the naked eye, vanished completely when in front of the sun's disk, showing that it was practically perfectly transparent.

On the evening of the 19th we may perhaps already see the comet's tail in the evening sky, though its head will not set while the twilight is still very strong. On the 20th, however, it will be visible till about 9 P. M. on the 22nd till 10:30, and on the 25th and afterward until after 11 P. M.

On the 21st the comet's head will be close to the star  $\gamma$  (Gemini); on the 23rd about 10 deg above Procyon, and on the 25th near  $\alpha$  and  $\zeta$  Hydra. Fuller details will be given later.

This month is also notable for two total eclipses of



# NATURE AS AN INVENTOR

BY PERCY COLLINS

Civilized man justly prides himself upon his numerous inventions and mechanical devices, but it is possible that inventors in general would boast less of their achievements did they realize that the patents in which they have established their rights are really nothing more than modern reproductions of devices which have been employed by Nature from the beginning of time. It is a fact that there is scarcely an invention of man that has not its prototype in Nature. Sometimes these prototypes are of a rough-and-ready character. More often, however, they have been brought to the highest pitch of perfection. It is little short of amazing that primitive man should have remained blind, through so many centuries, to the significance and value of these inventions of Nature. It has been said that almost all of man's achievements as an inventor have their prototypes either in the animal or vegetable kingdom. Obviously, therefore, it would be impossible to attempt—in the limits of a short article—anything approaching a complete catalogue of these coincidences. Yet a few of them may be

selected, almost at random, and they will serve to show, after much labor and thought, man has perfected devices which at the time appeared to him to be original, although in reality they were nothing more than reproductions.

As a first instance we may take grasping tools—a whole tribe of implements ranging from surgical forceps and sugar tongs to gaudfiers' pliers and the vast pliers by means of which great masses of white-hot metal are manipulated upon the giant anvils of our workshops. It is scarcely too much to affirm that, without such tools as these, art, science and manufacture would long ago have ceased to advance. The reader needs only to pause for a moment to realize how important a part is played by these familiar implements in the activities of human life, and when man first discovered how to make and use such things he must have benefited instantly. Yet all these tools have their parallels in Nature, and one is fain to imagine that some of these prototypes might still supply useful hints to modern toolmakers. Perhaps the

most perfect example of the powerful pincer in Nature is the claw of a crab or a lobster. The power of the crab's claw is so great that a bite from a large crab will inflict a severe injury. It is related that fisher men who have been fishing for crabs in the crevices of the rocks at low water have occasionally had their hand seized by a large specimen, and being unable to liberate themselves have been drowned by the retreating tide. Among other pincer-carrying animals are scorpions, while the insects known as cawlegs carry a dainty pair of forceps at the end of the body, and employ the tools for folding their simple and delicate wings. The opposable thumb and forefinger constitute, in effect, a most useful pair of pincers adaptable to many uses and it is strange that man should so long have overlooked the lesson in mechanics which they teach. Rheas and alligators are, of course, clumsy allies in principle to grasping tools, yet they have come to us only with the advance of civilization—no savage tribes having the least idea of them or their

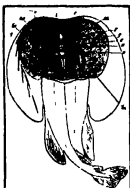
(Continued on page 184)



The first bottle—a gourd



The first ball-and-socket joint—a human shoulder



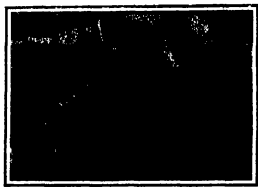
Nature's electric battery—the electric ray or torpedo



The first scapula—a scorpion's scapula



The first pump—a heart



One of the first boats, a computer which holds itself up, so cleverly packed that, if once taken out, no human hand can put them back again



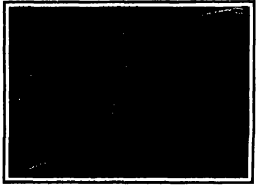
The first hydraulic system. The arrangement of arms and legs by which the female scorpion can, and manages a perfume. The arm (scorpion) without form a tube through which, when it is hydraulic



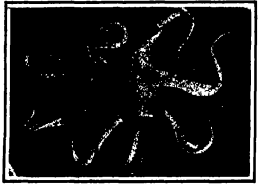
The first balloon—the "man-lift," which has a d to hold it, itself with air and ship over the water, supported by the breeze



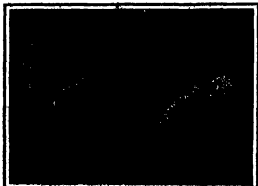
The lantern of a tropical America. Light without heat—the fluorescent engineer's lamp



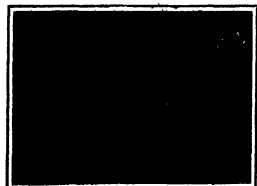
The first steamship. The tail fin, which stitches the leaves of her nest together



The first "cupping apparatus"—an octopus



The egg of the murex. A box that cannot roll off a shelf. It is covered in such a way, and so, that



A lobster's claw. The original of a gas-trap's pincers



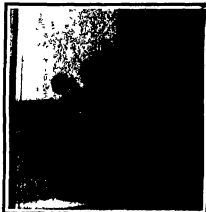
The first bridge. The carry-overs of the bridge, which, when it is good as that found in any bridge, is so

NATURE AS AN INVENTOR.

## CURIOSITIES OF SCIENCE AND INVENTION

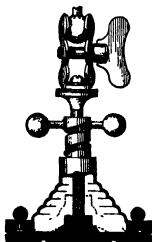
## SUCTION BRACKET FOR MIRRORS.

There is nothing very novel in supporting a device on a smooth surface by means of a suction cup. However, the suction support illustrated in the accompanying engraving is provided with a very ingenious



SHAVING MIRROR ATTACHED TO A WINDOW PANE WITH SUCTION BRACKET.

method of producing an efficient vacuum. The photograph shows a shaving mirror secured by means of a ball joint to the suction bracket and the bracket is supported on a window pane. So tightly does the device adhere to the window that it is possible to raise the window by lifting the bracket. The bracket cannot be pulled off the glass without danger of breaking the window pane. The line drawing shows a sectional view of the bracket, and illustrates the method of producing the suction. The base of the bracket is provided with a rubber disk, the center of which is secured to a square shaft on which the mirror is supported. Mounted on this shaft and free to turn thereon, is a sleeve in which a spiral groove is cut to receive a pin projecting from the square shaft. The sleeve is provided with a pair of ball knobs by which it may be gripped and turned, forcing the shaft outward and thus cupping the rubber disk as indicated by dotted lines. There is no possibility of leak except under the edge of the disk. A bracket thus applied will adhere firmly for weeks at a time. The stand may be secured to any smooth surface and is particularly adapted for a shaving mirror because it may be placed directly on the window pane where the best light for shaving can be obtained.



THE MIRROR BRACKET BROKEN AWAY TO SHOW THE SUCTION DISK.

rated by dotted lines. There is no possibility of leak except under the edge of the disk. A bracket thus applied will adhere firmly for weeks at a time. The stand may be secured to any smooth surface and is particularly adapted for a shaving mirror because it may be placed directly on the window pane where the best light for shaving can be obtained.

## THE OLD "INVICTA" LOCOMOTIVE AS A MONUMENT.

A public monument of interest to all who make a study of the evolution of the modern locomotive has recently been set up in Canterbury, England. Placed on a pedestal beneath the Norman walls of the historic city is the old "Invicta" engine, which in May, 1825, hauled the first train on the Canterbury to Whitstable Railway—the pioneer iron road of the



GEORGE STEPHENSON'S "INVICTA" NOW SET UP AS A MONUMENT.

south of Britain. The locomotive was built by George Stephenson. It will be observed that the cylinders and valve chests are very similar to those on the modern locomotive. The cylinders are 10 inches in diameter with an 18-inch stroke. The wheels are 4 feet in diameter. The boiler is 10 feet long by 3 feet 4 inches in diameter, and the working pressure was 40 pounds per square inch. The locomotive is now the property of the Corporation of Canterbury. It is coated with a special preservative paint.

## THE TELESCOPE THAT FIRST PICKED UP HALLIY'S COMET.

The large reflecting telescope illustrated herewith is interesting by reason of the fact that it was the first instrument to pick up Halley's comet on its present visit to our circle of the solar system. To be sure, the comet was discovered on photographic plates made with other telescopes before the photographic record made with the reflector here shown. But it was Prof. Max Wolf who first identified the comet on a photograph taken with this reflector at the Heidelberg Observatory. The discovery was made on September 1st, 220 days before perihelion. The Heidelberg reflector has a focal length of 815 feet, and the diameter of the mirror is 38 inches. The



THE TELESCOPE WITH WHICH HALLIY'S COMET WAS FIRST PICKED UP.

mounting is thoroughly up-to-date, and is electrically controlled. The observation platform is adjustable vertically by means of an electric motor.

## A NEW COMPETITOR OF THE HORSE.

The "sebra" has made its bow to the public. This creature is a new thing in the world, it never having existed until a year ago. It is the hybrid offspring of the African sebra and the Texas donkey. There are at the government experiment station at Henssela, Md., six young sebras. Their sire is the royal Abyssinian sebra which King Menelik gave to



A VALUABLE HYBRID—A CROSS BETWEEN A SEBRA AND A DONKEY.

President Roosevelt. The latter turned the striped creature over to the experiment station, and here the idea of developing a new race of animals was conceived. These six young ones are the sebras. They are regarded as offering great promise. Certain of them combine the docility, strength and utility of the mother with the spirit, activity and beauty of the father. The sebras are already larger than their mother. They are beautifully built and should be adapted to the many uses to which the domestic animal is put.

## TROCHA CUTTER.

A soldier in the Spanish and Philippine wars, who

had abundant experience in endeavoring to get through wire entanglements of the Spanish trenches, has recently devised a very simple cutter which may be applied to the bayonet of the gun. A soldier in action will disencumber himself of everything except his gun



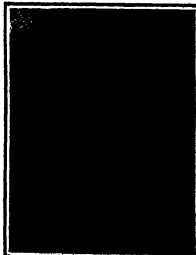
WIRE-CUTTING ATTACHMENT FOR GUNS.

and bayonet, and hence the pillars which are usually furnished for cutting barb wire obstructions are frequently thrown away, so that the only method of getting through an entanglement when encountered is to hammer the fire with the bayonet and a sword. Not only is this process slow, but it is fatal in a galling fire. For this reason the inventor has devised a cutter which may be secured to the bayonet without interfering with the use of the bayonet and which will operate to sever the wire by a single thrust of the weapon. As shown in the illustration, the cutter consists of two jaws pivoted eccentrically so that when extending forward in their normal position they are open, but when pushed back they close in operation, the gun is inverted, the point of the bayonet is rested on the wire, and then the gun is thrust forward with the bayonet sliding on the wire so as to guide the latter between the jaws of the cutter. As the jaws are thrust back they close upon the wire and sever it.

## SPECTROGRAM OF A FULLY BURNED FLAME.

The range of visible rays from deep red to violet forms a very small part of the solar spectrum. Beyond the red, the rays are too long to affect the retina, but we can detect them as heat. At the other end, we have the ultra-violet rays which are too short to affect the retina, but manifest themselves on the photographic plate. Röntgen rays are not found in sunlight, but if they were, and if our eyes were so constructed that they could detect only these rays, visible matter about us would take on a very different aspect from that to which we are accustomed. The accompanying illustration shows how a man would appear. The man appears semi-transparent and one can easily make out his two watches and chain, his tie clip and the buckles of his suspenders. The metal parts of the buttons on his coat are also quite evident, and his ribs may be plainly seen. A pickpocket might carry such power of discernment, but he would have difficulty in concealing his plunder if others were possessed of similar vision.

The photograph was taken instantaneously with a Snooks apparatus, and is reproduced from "Archives of the Röntgen Ray." Heretofore, it has required a long exposure to take a photograph with the Röntgen rays, but recently a system has been devised by which a very sudden and powerful discharge is produced capable of making an instantaneous photograph. This sudden discharge is made by using a tube in place of the interrupter of an induction coil. The tube is melted when the proper intensity of current is reached, producing a very sudden break of the primary and a powerful discharge of the secondary. Exposures of 1/500 to 1/120 of a second have thus been obtained.



SPECTROGRAM OF A FULLY BURNED FLAME.

# It is Easy to make advertising

claims for cars; but to make cars that will make good the claims is hard.

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Judged by price alone you might as well buy some other car as a Chalmers: \$1500 is simply \$1500—no more in one bank than in another, no more in bills than in coin, no more in your pocket than in another man's.

It is only when you begin trying to buy something with your money that the sense of value enters your mind.

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It is difficult to get more in a car, at any price, than you can get in a Chalmers "Forty" at \$2750. The "Forty" has all the power one can want, the quality to endure, beauty of line and luxurious finish. Seats for seven if desired. Catalogue "R" on request.



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COMPLETION OF THE PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD EXTENSION TO NEW YORK

# SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

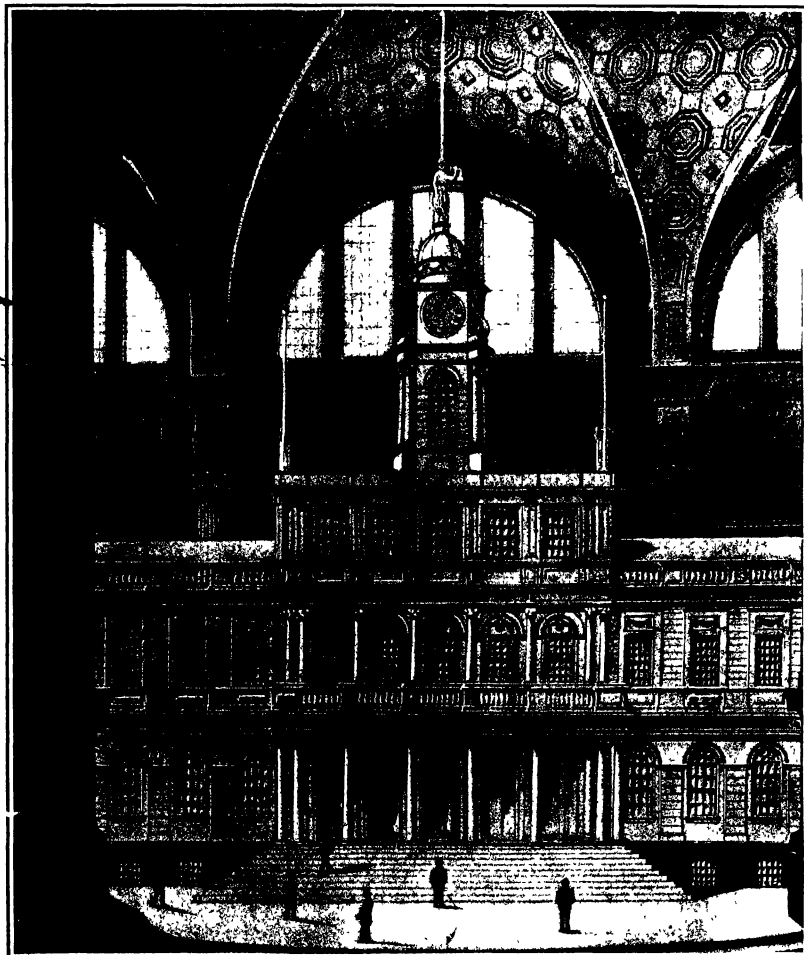
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A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS

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Interior view of the magnificent waiting room which is so spacious that it could contain, bodily, the New York City Hall. The ceiling, 150 feet above the floor, would clear the flagpole by 10 feet.



# ENGINEERING.

The German estimate of aeronautical statistics for the year 1910 is that Germany will have fourteen dirigibles and five aeroplanes; France, seven dirigibles and twenty-nine aeroplanes; Italy, three dirigibles and eleven aeroplanes; Russia, three dirigibles and six aeroplanes; England, two machines of each kind.

The activity in railroad construction in the North west is unexampled for the construction of several important bridges across the larger rivers. A notable instance of this is the Columbia River bridge on the North Coast Railroad, the construction of the permanent substructure of which will consist of twelve piers carrying a superstructure made up of nine Howe truss spans, and a draw span across the main channel.

A leading southern journal speaks words of wisdom when it says that the policy of navy yard construction of battleships should be adhered to, even if it costs a trifle more than building in private yards. Keeping our leading navy yards busy with warship construction not only serves as a stimulus to private contractors, but it has the important effect of maintaining the navy yard forces intact, with a large body of skilled workmen ready at all times to undertake emergency work.

The loss of the Atlantic transport liner "Minnehaha" upon the much-dreaded rocks at the western end of the Scilly Islands reminds us again that in spite of the additional safeguards which have been introduced of late, the perils of the sea are still insistent. The great success of the submarine belt on our Atlantic coast suggests that this device might be used to very good effect at the more dangerous points at the approaches to the British Isles.

Nobody seriously disputes the advantages of the "Pay-as-you-enter" car. Not the least among them is the reduction which it has made at least on certain lines, in the number of accidents. Sixteen accidents, as reported by the Chicago City Railway show that the complete introduction of this style of car on all trunk lines has resulted in a decrease of accidents of about thirty-two per cent, as compared with the number occurring during equal periods of service with the old style of cars which it replaced.

The building of railroads through mountainous country occasionally necessitates some daring bridge construction. A recent example is the Sivas-Armenia aqueduct which forms part of a new line extending by way of Demirli to the Turkish frontier. The structure which is 600 feet long and spans a gorge 300 feet deep serves to connect the Sivas-Armenia line with the other side of the gorge. The superstructure which is very graceful in design consists of latticed trusses carried upon two hinged arches. The bridge is on a grade of about two per cent and the line is laid on a curve of four degrees.

Recent tests at Sandy Hook of the resisting power of reinforced concrete as a defense against high-powered projectiles confirm the calculations of the penetrating power of the twelve-inch gun. It is stated that a concrete wall twenty feet thick heavily reinforced with steel beams, was pierced by a twelve-inch projectile fired at high velocity. We understand that a similar attack is to be made with the new fourteen-inch gun. The blow delivered was sufficient to penetrate twenty-two inches of armor plate and the reinforced concrete withstood the attack so well that it will probably be used in the construction of the new coast defense fortifications in the Philippines.

The electric operation of trains through the Saint Clair tunnel is showing the same economy as compared with steam operation, as have been obtained in similar installations elsewhere. The *Electric Railway Journal* has the cost of coal for one year under electric operation was only thirty-nine per cent of that for the last year of steam operation. The total service charges were only one per cent of those for steam, and the sum of service and fuel charges was 84.5 per cent, which represents the operating economy of the new over the old service. The cost of maintenance and repairs under electric operation is fifty-five per cent of that of steam during the same period.

Considerable interest has been aroused by the launch of the new torpedo-boat destroyer "Paulding" at the Bath Iron Works. She will be the first destroyer in our navy designed for the exclusive use of fuel. Because of this, she is practically a sister vessel to the "Plummer" and the "Reid," and like them she will be driven by turbines, and must make a speed of 35 1/2 knots on a four hour run at sea. It is well here to correct the statement which recently went the round of the press, that the "Plummer" made 36 knots recently in the Gulf of Mexico. As a matter of fact, her speed on that occasion was between 36 and 37 knots. Her speed was made on her acceptance trials, when she steamed at an average speed of 37 1/2 knots. The fastest destroyer are the old burners of the British navy, which made on trial between 35 and 36 knots.

# ELECTRICITY.

In Rochester, N. Y., a good system of electric light and telephone wiring is in use. Foremost among the pole lines on the streets are done away with. The system is applicable chiefly to the residential districts. The lines are placed in underground conduits in the streets, but instead of making connections with the conduits directly from the underground conduits, a pole line is erected in the back yards of each block and this pole line is connected to the conduits by an underground branch at each side street. This obviates the necessity of having manholes in front of each block.

An application was recently made for a permit to lay conduits along the new Baltimore and Wilmington road. These are to form part of an underground trunk system connecting Boston New York Philadelphia Baltimore and Washington, in which the Anconi Cable Telephone and Telegraph Company will run its lines. The conduits will be laid just below front lines and will contain a hundred wires which can be tapped at any point. It is stated that the system will serve as an auxiliary for the overhead wires which are usually are put out of order by severe storms. It is expected that after the line connecting Boston and Washington is completed, the system will be extended West and South.

Storage battery locomotives are being used in certain mines of Germany. These locomotives are considered less dangerous than the ordinary electric locomotive for the reason that no wiring is necessary in the mines and they can be located completely to prevent ignition of gases by means of a flame spark. The locomotives are each provided with two sets of batteries one of which is being charged while the other is operating the locomotive. The batteries are wider than more than two thirds the length so that the recharging takes but a short time. In one type of locomotive of twenty horse-power the batteries contain ninety cells each with a capacity of 75 ampere hours. The storage battery locomotive range from 8 to 22 horse-power.

Whenever a cable message is sent to an island city, it is necessary to transmit the message from the cable receiver and retransmit it to be hand over the land lines to its point of destination. Heretofore it has been impossible to send a message direct to the island city by means of relay connection with the overhead wires for the reason that the cable signals are of too fluctuating a character and too sensitive to be used for ordinary telegraph relay. Recently a system has been devised which promises to make direct connection between the cable and telegraph systems commercially practicable. A very sensitive relay is used and the character of the signal is changed so as to obviate the usual fluctuations. By means of this new system a cable message was recently sent from Cape Nova Scotia to New York a distance of 800 miles and here relayed to Chicago.

The installation of a complete telephone system for the stage of the New Theater in this city illustrates not only the variety of uses to which the telephone is put but also the vastness and complexity of the up-to-date stage. The stage telephone system has nine stations on the stage and twenty-five floor stations with two switchboards or central stations. Through these central stations inter-communication with the other stations may be had. From one of these central stations the stage manager directs the operations of the stage hands, while the other board is the stage manager's station. The regular stations are placed in the prompters' booth, the electrician's booth, the stage manager's and one is located near the orchestra leader. Calls are made by operating push buttons from either of the central stations and they serve to flash a battery signal or to operate a buzzer, depending upon which of two buttons is pressed. The theater is also equipped with a telephone system for carrying calls.

The Pennsylvania's tunnel and terminal signal installation is the largest single installation of its kind ever made in this country. While most people realize that signals play an important part in protecting train movements especially where traffic is congested, the traveling made in these devices is far from the general understanding. Development in signaling in recent years has been tremendous and has proceeded chiefly along electrical lines. Complete signaling and interlocking systems are being developed and the large amount of electrical apparatus and the introduction of electrical propulsion complicates the situation. We are informed by the Korte Tunneling Wire and Cable Company, who supplied the wire and cable for the Pennsylvania Terminal that frequently the cost of electrical wires and cables is from 20 to 30 per cent of the entire cost of the installation. Not only from the standpoint of safety, but from that of reliability and economy of train service, it is necessary that the wires and cables controlling the intricate apparatus should be the best. Millions of feet of wire and cable conductors are being used in this installation.

Prof. W. W. C. Mott, director of the Lick Observatory, has taken a series of photographs showing that the bright sodium D line has been photographed in the spectrum of Halley's comet by Wright.

Prof. Charles Chandler was honored in New York City recently on his retirement in his 74th year. From active service as a lieutenant in the U. S. Army, he retired from the U. S. Army in 1891. The banquet was attended by many of New York's most distinguished scientists.

Commander Peary's arrival in England was attended with much ceremony. A regiment of reporters met him at Plymouth. Members of the Royal Geographical Society as well as the London Naval Association welcomed him to London. With Commander Peary is Capt. Bartlett, who accompanied him to the pole. A special gold medal was presented to Commander Peary by the Royal Geographical Society, and a replica in silver to Capt. Bartlett.

A letter dated May 1st 1910 has been received at Harvard Observatory from Prof. D. W. Washburn of Brooke University stating that this morning at 4 o'clock Halley's comet had a short bright tail projecting toward the sun. Two bright rays bordered the outer part of this sector forming an angle with the sun of about 100 degrees. The projecting rays were much brighter. The nucleus was surrounded on the sun side with distinct nebulous sheaths. Spectroscopic observation of October 19th 1897 was widely called a photograph. No lines of spectrum showed a tail of over 2 degrees in length.

The lowest atmospheric temperature ever observed, -68 deg. C. (-94.4 deg. F.) was recorded on January 15th 1885 at Werchojansk in Eastern Siberia a little north of the Arctic Circle. No lower temperature than this has been experienced by any Arctic or Antarctic expedition. A temperature of -50 deg. C. (-58 deg. F.) was observed in 1875 at 825, degrees north latitude and the lowest temperature observed by Nansen at 83 degrees north latitude was -51 deg. C. (-51.8 deg. F.). The assertion of Dr. Cook who claims to have observed a temperature of -54 deg. C. (-65.2 deg. F.) at 75 degrees north latitude in February 1908 cannot be accepted without reserve.

The United States Weather Bureau has issued instructions to all its regular stations calling for observations on the 17th 18th and 19th of May of any available critical or barometric observations. The observations by the passage of the train through the fall of Halley's comet. Up to date the development of the tail has been disappointing. Slow and it may not extend so far as the earth can see. It is possible that it may do so. It can hardly fail to make its presence manifest by disturbances in the atmosphere perceptible by the trained observer. If not by the layman, such phenomena as mark the occurrence of an abnormal amount of dust in the atmosphere - red sunsets. Halos a ring and the singular non-homogeneous clouds that were frequently observed after the eruption of Krakatoa are especially to be looked for.

A monograph bearing the title "Quality of Surface Waters in the United States" has been issued by the United States Geological Survey. The volume which is the work of R. H. Dole contains the results of over 5,000 chemical analyses of water from the principal rivers of the United States east of the Rocky Mountains. Daily samples of water from nearly 200 stations were collected for a year, and in lots of ten consecutive samples from the same stream and station were collected. The monograph contains a table of the analyses giving as they do the average composition from day to day and information regarding change of water level wherever available. From the results of the analyses it is possible to make a list of the American rivers that has never been published. They are on this account particularly valuable to managers of industrial plants and water works.

During the past winter Prof. H. C. Brown of Strasbourg president of the International Commission on Scientific Atmosphere has been engaged in meteorological observations with sounding balloons over the Atlantic Ocean in the region between Tenerife and the West Indies. The average altitude attained was 15,000 meters and the maximum 15,600 meters which is the record for such observations at sea. The lowest temperature yet measured over the sea was also attained 15,600 feet (-54.4 deg. F.). During December 1st 1909 the balloon was inflated at 1,600 meters below over the Atlantic up to an average altitude of 5,000 meters. Immediately above this there was an unusually strong antitide which had at an altitude of 5,000 meters a strong antitide. The temperature of the latter wind must have carried an enormous volume of warm air from the tropics to Europe and the unexpected strength of this current may have had something to do with the abnormally mild winter that has prevailed over the continent. The temperature layer was reached at an altitude of 18,000 meters, i. e., 4,000 to 5,000 meters higher than it occurs, on an average, over Europe.

# The Porhydrometer—An Apparatus for Weighing Ship Cargoes

BY THE ENGLISH CORRESPONDENT OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

An ingenious apparatus has been perfected by an Italian engineer, Signor Emilio de Lorenzi, the function of which is to indicate automatically the weight of a ship's cargo. This device, which is called the "Porhydrometer," is of simple construction and operation, and works with remarkable accuracy—the results being within 0.001 per cent. Moreover, it is easy of installation so that vessels already in service can be equipped therewith as readily as those in course of construction.

The operation of the instrument is based upon the principle that a body floating in a liquid no matter what its density may be displaces a quantity of that liquid exactly equal to its own weight. The apparatus comprises merely a float or "aerometer" placed in a chamber filled with water, which is in communication with the outside of the ship. Consequently, as the vessel sinks deeper into the water while being loaded or discharged when the freight is being discharged, the level of the water in the float chamber must rise or fall in accordance with the level of the surrounding liquid outside. The float itself being free it becomes more or less deeply immersed in the water in the chamber with a consequent alteration in its apparent weight.

The aerometer is connected and balanced by levers so that by the adjustment of the balancing weights the volume of water displaced by the aerometer at any particular draught is accurately gauged the alteration in apparent weight being read on the weighing machine or recording instrument, and therefrom the weight of any cargo taken on board or discharged is easily determined.

The principle of the apparatus may be more comprehensively realized by reference to the explanatory illustration which shows the midship section of a vessel with the porhydrometer in position. The float chamber *A* is placed vertically over the longitudinal and transverse center of the ship and extends from a point 1½ to 2 feet below the line of flotation when the vessel is empty to a convenient height above the load line. This chamber is connected to the surrounding liquid by means of a small tube or valve on the side of the vessel, or to some other convenient sea water connection a special tube being unnecessary so long as an uninterrupted flow of water to the float chamber can be secured and the water level within may be exactly as that outside the ship. In the large float chamber *A* is immersed the aerometer *C* being suspended from, and balanced by a horizontal lever *D* having its fulcrum at *B*, the other end being connected to a standard weighing machine at *F*. The aerometer is generally made heavier than its displacement, but in this is immaterial since it is in a condition of equilibrium. The float extends downward sufficiently to bring its lower end below the plane of flotation for light loading, and sufficiently far upward to bring its upper end above the plane for the maximum draught. Moreover, its profile is such that the area of the float at any point of cross section bears a constant ratio to the area of the ship at the same level.

As the vessel becomes immersed through the superimposition of any weight such as cargo, the draught increases and accordingly the water in the float chamber rises to a higher level, the aerometer itself consequently being immersed deeper into the water, and by increasing its displacement reduces its apparent weight as already mentioned. This difference of weight creates a downward pull on the opposing arm of the lever, where a counterweight remains unaltered. As the standard is connected to the main lever *D* by the rods or links, the exact amount of tension is registered that is attributable to the disturbance of the balance on the main lever through the increased displacement.

The vital part of the invention lies in the aerometer. Alteration of trim or inclination of the vessel cannot by any means upset the accuracy of the instrument. It is in short an absolute gauge of the vessel's displacement. Should the cargo be placed right aft or forward, the weight will be weighed exactly the same as

if placed near the center of the vessel, since the draught directly under the instrument is the mean of that fore and aft. The whole of the parts of the apparatus are standardized with the exception of the aerometer, which must be properly designed and carefully adjusted, its form being made to correspond with that of the ship.

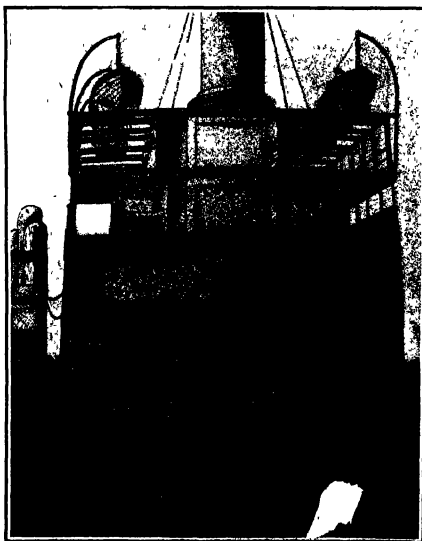
Numerous tests with the apparatus have been carried out in England, and the accuracy of the weight readings, irrespective of the size of the vessel, have been remarkably conclusive. It can be applied to



Recording instrument of the porhydrometer.

any type of craft with equal facility and infallibility—to a small lighter as easily as to a transatlantic liner. At the present moment arrangements are being made for its installation upon a 10,000-ton vessel. In this case the diameter of the float will be about 9 inches. For a small lighter it averages about 3½ inches diameter at the top by about 2½ inches at the lower extremity. So sensitive is the apparatus that it will indicate the weight of a person stepping on board.

Thus it will be seen that the captain of a vessel always possesses a means of determining exactly the weight he has on board. For those vessels engaged in long journeys, necessitating bunkering at intervals, it is of far-reaching importance, since it enables the captain to ascertain precisely how much fuel he has shipped. This is a valuable point, inasmuch as many foreign ports short weighing is by no means an uncommon practice, and vessels are often misled for a considerable sum per annum in payments for misinterpreted quantities of coal.



Sectional drawing of vessel, showing porhydrometer.

THE PORHYDROMETER—AN APPARATUS FOR WEIGHING SHIP CARGOES.

The function of the invention is also carried to a further and important feature. It will inform the captain the exact weight of water he has in his ballast tanks. Also, should the vessel spring a leak, the float is instantly communicated to the captain by the apparatus registering an increased weight or displacement due to filling with water. In cases of collision and grounding the incursion of water is similarly conveyed, the apparatus being equipped with an electric alarm bell, which conveys intimation of the danger to the captain. No discrepancies in the readings can be introduced by variations in the density of the water in which the vessel may be floating, for such cannot affect the fundamental principle upon which the apparatus works.

It will be seen that by the introduction of the apparatus the ship itself is practically converted into a huge weight bridge. The Italian government submitted the invention to searching tests and was so convinced of the accuracy of the records that its customs authorities have been ordered to accept porhydrometer readings as correct. To the shipowner this is no slight concession, since in regard to Italy, instead of paying 45 cents per ton in weighing dues, vessels fitted with the porhydrometer only pay 15 cents per ton.

## Influence of Phase and Rotation upon the Brightness of Illuminated Spheres.

The total luminosity of the moon varies according to the proportion of illuminated surface which is turned toward the earth, that is to say, in accordance with the "phase" of the satellite. Mercury and Venus show similar, but smaller differences of phase and brightness. The exterior planets also show in so little that the variation in their brightness is hardly perceptible. The brightness of planets can be measured by the astrophotometer, and the dependence of the brightness upon the phase can be compared with the curve. As it seemed possible that some information in regard to the surface of the planets could be obtained from the study of such curves, Von Auwers has made a series of observations of the brightness of the planets between brightness and phase in the case of illuminated masses of limestone, sandstone, granite, and other materials of spherical and other forms. The measurements of brightness were made in a dark room. The artificial planet was illuminated by a Nernst lamp, not directly, but by reflection from a plane sheet of glass, through which the object could be observed in the "full" phase. The lamp and the reflector were mounted on an arm which could be turned around the object in order to vary the phase.

When the results were plotted, the curves representing the brightness as a function of the phase were found to fall into two classes, according to the character of the material to which the globes were composed. Globes of light colored material gave curves concave below, while the curves produced by globes of darker material are concave above. Small elevations and depressions, glossy surfaces, etc., were found to produce comparatively little effect upon the curves, the character of which was, in general, decided almost entirely by the lightness or darkness of the surface. The curves produced by Venus and the moon are concave above. Hence it appears probable that the surfaces of these two planets are formed of dark colored material—Fronstene.

In a recent issue of Nature the difficulty experienced in hot countries in keeping small accumulations in working order is referred to, and it is pointed out that this is probably due to the cells being filled with dilute acid of density 1.10 at a temperature of 50 deg. or 55 deg. Cent. While this is a proper density to use in a climate where the temperature is 15 deg. at 50 deg. Cent., corresponding to a 50 per cent mixture, it is too high for a hot climate, where it really represents a 30 per cent mixture; a density of 1.170 or even 1.150 is more suitable.

THE NEW KIFFEL PHOTOGRAPHIC HELIOGRAPH.

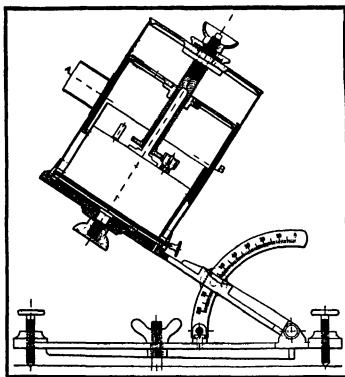
However, in order to measure the luminosity of the sun's disk, allowed a beam of sunlight to enter a dark room through a small aperture, behind which a converging lens was placed. The diverging cone of rays, beyond the focus of the lens, was intercepted by a screen, forming a circle, the brightness of which was not too great to be measured by the ordinary methods. The brightness of the sun was assumed to bear the same ratio to that of the circle on the screen that the area of the circle bore to that of the aperture through which the light entered. At a later date (1844) Pissau and Foucault employed the photographic process which had just been discovered by Daguerre to compare the brightness of the sun with that of artificial sources of light. The quantity of light received by a unit of area of the solar image formed at the focus of a telescope is proportional to the clear aperture of the object glass. Pissau and Foucault received the image of the sun on an iodized plate of silver. In successive experiments they varied the aperture of the objective and regulated the duration of the exposure so that the final tint assumed by the plate and, therefore, the quantity of silver iodide decomposed, was the same in each case. In this way they proved that the required length of exposure, within certain limits, varied inversely in proportion to the aperture of the objective. In other words, the total chemical effect was found to be (within the range of exposure) proportional to the total quantity of light received by the image during the exposure. Then, by comparing the image of the sun with that of a circular area, of the same apparent diameter, of the positive carbon of an electric lamp, they proved that the chemical effect is proportional to the brightness of the source of light. This relation, however, did not appear to extend indefinitely, for the quantity of silver reduced, which was at first proportional to the length of the exposure, tended toward a fixed limit when the exposure was greatly prolonged.

In 1881 the great advance which had been made in photography enabled Janssen to employ very sensitive plates, in which the total chemical effect remained proportional to the duration of exposure within very wide limits. Jordan devised a heliograph in the form of a perforated cylindrical box containing a sheet of ferro-prussiate paper, and Richard constructed another instrument based on the photographic action of the solar rays.

Campbell, on the other hand, made use of the heating effect of the solar rays for the purpose of measuring the effective annual duration of sunlight, i. e., the aggregate time during which the sun is not veiled by clouds, a quantity which plays an important part in the processes of vegetation. Campbell's heliograph consists of a sphere of glass, mounted on a horizontal base, in a place exposed on every side, so that the sun is visible from its rising until its setting. A groove in the spherical mounting allows the intro-



THE KIFFEL PHOTOGRAPHIC HELIOGRAPH.



VERTICAL SECTION OF THE KIFFEL HELIOGRAPH.

duction of a strip of cardboard, which forms a circular arc at such a distance from the spherical glass lens that the image of the sun, formed by the lens, is

always on the strip. The cardboard is carbonized by the concentrated solar rays at the spot where the image is formed and, owing to apparent diurnal motion of the sun, a black line is traced on the card. If the sun shines all day without intermission this line is continuous but if the solar rays are intercepted by floating clouds the trace consists of a number of separate portions, the positions and lengths of which show when and how long the sun has shone. The apparatus is easily set up. It is necessary only to level the base, to place the noon line, marked XII on the card opposite a fixed mark on the frame and to set the instrument so that the sun's image falls exactly on this line at the instant of true noon. In the improved form of the instrument designed by Kiffel the frame has three grooves, at different heights, in which three sorts of cards are placed. The shortest cards are placed in the highest groove and are used between November 5th and February 5th, the longest cards are placed in the lowest groove and are used between May 5th and August 5th, while the cards of intermediate length are placed in the middle groove and are used during the remainder of the year.

Kiffel has recently invented a photographic recording heliograph which has been used for some time at the central meteorological bureau of France and at the Juvicy observatory. It consists of a cylinder which is mounted on a shaft parallel to the earth's axis, and is turned by clockwork at the rate of one revolution in twenty-four hours. The sun's rays enter the cylinder through an aperture in its convex surface which is surrounded by a hood for the exclusion of diffused light. An inner cylinder, covered with photographic paper, is supported by a nut which can move along the shaft of the outer cylinder, which shaft bears a screw thread. A guide, attached to the case of the clock work, prevents the inner cylinder from rotating. Hence as the outer cylinder turns, the inner cylinder is compelled, by the screw, nut and guide to move along the shaft without rotating. The photographic paper is surrounded by a screen, which has various degrees of transparency every in its various parts corresponding to the average intensity of sunlight at different hours and seasons. As the outer cylinder rotates, its aperture is always directed approximately toward the sun and in consequence of the motions of the two cylinders, the entering pencil of light traces a heliographic line on the paper which is wide enough to serve for a number of days. No new conclusions can be drawn from the photographic records made by the Kiffel heliograph until after the instrument has been in continuous operation for several years.

GARDIN PROCESS OF PHOTO-SCULPTURE.

The idea of employing photography as an aid to sculpture soon followed the invention of the daguerotype. Fifty years ago Will

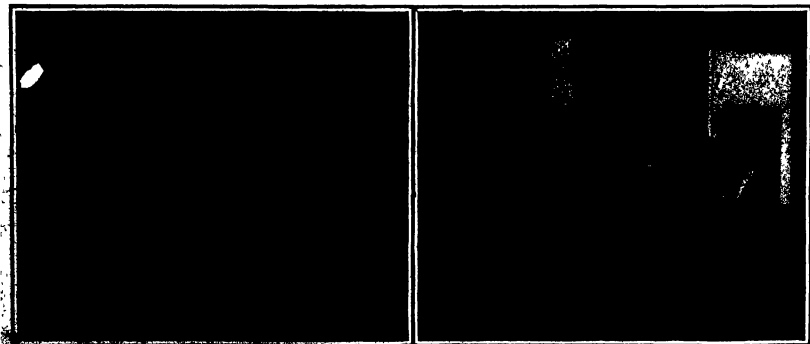


Fig. 2.—Gardin's apparatus for photographing the object from the front, back, and sides, and for photographing the object with a black screen.

Fig. 1.—Gardin's apparatus for modelling from four photographs.

THE GARDIN PROCESS OF PHOTO-SCULPTURE.

cameras, arranged in a semicircle. A paper positive is made from each of the negatives and the twenty-four prints are cut out along the outline of the figure, and are then cut in two vertically. The forty-eight profiles thus obtained are assembled radially about a vertical axis in their proper relative positions. By filling in the intervals with a plastic mass a fairly complete sketch of the figure is obtained.

This process may be varied as follows. A mass of clay or modeling wax is placed on a revolving circular platform, the circumference of which is divided into twenty-four equal parts. The approximate form of the model having been given to the mass by the usual methods, the outline of the figure in one of the (center) photographs is followed with the tracing point of a pantograph, which is so constructed and arranged that its copying point plows a furrow in the mass of clay. The platform is then turned through one division and a second furrow is made from the second photograph. This process is repeated with each of the twenty-four photographs, and the clay between the furrows is carefully removed. A very skillful hand is required to perform this operation so as to reproduce every detail of the model, but the object of this and all other processes of photo-sculpture is to produce, not a finished statue or bust, but a sketch as nearly accurate as possible.

The new Cardin process affords the advantage of requiring only one photographic camera. Fig. 3 illustrates the method of making the photographs required for a portrait bust. The sitter is posed, facing the camera, before a screen, the means of which the back and sides of the head are photographed by reflection. As the sitter's face and the three virtual images formed by the mirrors are unequally distant from the lens, the four images formed by the latter are not in sharp focus in the same plane. For this reason the ground glass, the lens, and the focusing screen is made in four sections, and the plate holder is contrived to hold four plates, side by side, but in slightly different planes. The same cause produces differences in the scale of the four photographs, but in making the enlarged copies, which are then employed in the operation of modeling, these differences are easily removed with the aid of the plumb-line which are suspended above the camera, and at each side of the sitter's head, and which appear in each photograph and indicate its scale.

The modeling apparatus is shown in Fig. 1. A vertical post rises from the center of the square iron platform *A*. The photographs, a front view *F* and a profile *H* are supported in a vertical position by frames which slide in guides bordering two adjacent sides of the table. These slides are furnished with jointed supports which carry long rods, *A* and *B*. The rods can slide lengthwise in their supports and can be inclined and moved vertically and horizontally by means of the joints of the supports. The rods are used horizontally if the bust is to have the same scale as the photograph, and the latter for enlargements and reductions. The movement of the photograph frames in the guides is limited by fixed stops, so that the frames can be removed and replaced easily in their proper positions.

The rods and their supports are adjusted to bring the inner end of the rod *A* into contact with a conspicuous point, the tip of the nose, for example, in the full face photograph *F* and the inner end of *B* into contact with the corresponding point of the profile *H*. The frames containing the photographs are then removed and the rods *A* and *B* are pushed toward their supports until their inner ends meet. The point of meeting determines the position of the top of the nose of the bust. The post at the center of the table is covered with clay or other plastic material, which is built out until it reaches the point of contact in full form. The rods are then drawn back, the photograph replaced and a second point of the face is established by a repetition of the process. In this way numerous points distributed over the entire surface of the bust are fixed, each pair of adjacent sides of the table, and the corresponding pair of photographs, being employed, as required. The result is an almost complete sketch, obtained from a sketch of the original. All the work in operations can be performed by a skilled workman. The hand of the sculptor is called into requisition only to give a few finishing touches in another brief sitting, and to improve, as individual artistic character upon the work.

### HALLEY'S COMET IN THE STARS ERY.

BY HERBERT NORMAN BURNHAM, Ph.D.

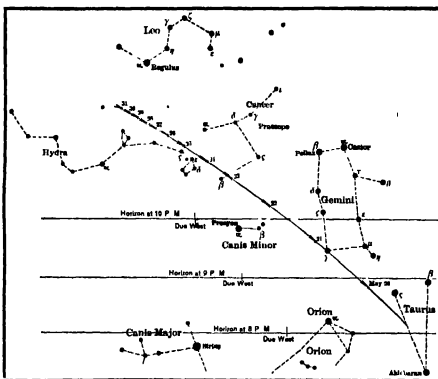
The average man will stand by far his best opportunity to see the comet, which has captured so prominently a place in public attention, during the last ten days of May. The accompanying map shows at a glance just what are the circumstances of its appearance. At first its apparent motion among the stars is very rapid, but later, as it recedes from us, it seems to stand almost still in the sky. Its distance from the earth is in round numbers 14 million miles on the 20th, 17 million on the 21st, 22 million on the 22nd, and 43 million on the 23rd, so that it will appear to shrink and grow visibly fainter from night to night.

In addition to the stars near the comet's path, and the place of the comet for each night (at 10 P. M. Eastern Standard Time, or 9 P. M. Central Standard Time, etc.), the map shows the position of the horizon among the stars at certain hours, so that it is easy to estimate how high up they will appear at any time.

The given position of the horizon is exact for observers in latitude 43 deg north (Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, Utah, northern California).

Those south of this line will see the stars on the right (on the map or in the sky) somewhat lower, and those on the left somewhat higher, at the same hour. In any case it will be easy to identify them by their relative positions.

Those unfamiliar with the constellations may well begin with the four brightest stars Regulus (at the end of the sickle-shaped group shown on the map), Castor and Pollux (close together), and Procyon



TRACK OF HALLEY'S COMET AND ENDORSEMENT STARS, MAY 20-23, 1910

(lower down, between stars and Regulus). With these as guides, the other stars can readily be picked out, and the comet identified.

From present indications it is probable that at first (on the 20th and 21st) the comet will be as bright as these bright stars and visible at all places. Toward the end of the month it will be much fainter, but possibly still easily visible to the naked eye. The tail will extend upward and to the left, practically along the line of the comet's apparent path. How long it will be is even yet impossible to say. At first the light of the comet (which is full on the night of the 23rd) will drown out the fainter parts of the tail, but later, when it is out of the way, they may perhaps be seen, though the comet will be so much farther off that, on the whole, it will hardly be so fine a sight.

In observing it telescopically, the eyepiece of lowest power, giving the largest field of view, will be most satisfactory.

Princeton University Observatory

### The Elasticity of the Earth.

Some interesting experiments have recently been carried out by Prof. Milne, F.R.S., the well-known authority on seismology, to demonstrate the elasticity of the earth especially under the influence of the tides. Some years ago it was shown that valleys during the day are of greater width than at night, there being an expansion or opening out under the action of the sun and a contraction or closing up in the hours of darkness. He also showed by means of microphotographic records secured at his observatory at Shide, that the

lode of Night alternates moves forward and backward with the variation of the tides, the greater pressure of the water at high tide in the English Channel as compared with that in the Barents and Spitzbergen causing the lode to be tilted upward bodily from the channel side.

His latest experiments in this direction have been carried out in connection with the Irish Sea at the mouth of the Mersey. A special type of submarine recorder has been devised and has been set up in an underground position at Blanton Observatory near Liverpool, some two miles from the nearest edge of the Mersey. The apparatus comprises a 4 ft. water, a mast and a boom, such as is used in the professor's earthquake recorder, the boom being free, so that as the mast moves in one direction another the boom also moves. A photographic recorder is connected to the apparatus so as to secure a permanent visual record of the oscillations. The instrument is far more sensitive than that employed for ordinary seismic operations, thereby indicating those very slight movements of the earth which the ordinary apparatus would ignore.

The records secured by this instrument conclusively prove that twice every twenty-four hours, on each side of the tidal basin are drawn closer together, the phenomenon occurring at high tide when the increased volume and weight of water piled up in the Irish Sea and pressing on its bed causes the water to act as a wedge. The action can be watched, for when the tide is flowing quickly and the tide is high the pendulum moves a considerable distance and keeps pace with the deflection due to the tide. On the other hand, the weight of the tide of the mouth of the Mersey causes a deflection of about one inch in a distance of sixteen miles. The weight of the tide also and the tide also and the weight is reduced the sag diminishes like a dent in an India rubber ball, and the banks on either side slide toward the center of the bay. The extent of this attracting and repelling movement would be more accentuated upon the instrument were the latter placed nearer the sea, and Prof. Milne points out that for this reason observations should not be made at low tide. The regular alternate movements of the apparatus in opposite directions every six hours not only, as has been pointed out, demonstrate the elasticity of the earth's crust, demonstrating that it is responsive to pull and strain to a far greater degree than is generally believed, but also weigh the tide itself. The result of these experiments should provide a new field for investigating tidal forces and phenomena, and possibly contribute to our knowledge thereof.

### The Current Supplement.

Almost the entire issue of the current *BURNHAM*, No. 1799, is devoted to a complete description of what is known as the New York Tunnel Extension of the Pennsylvania Railroad, the costliest improvement ever made by a railroad, and one of the most far-reaching improvements to industry and to the nation. Many pictures are published, and the descriptions are so made, the progress of the work, as well as the completed station. Dr. Otto Hoffmann writes interestingly on the system of the universe. Carbon tetrachloride possesses a number of interesting properties, and is used for the extraction of oils and fats, the advantage of freedom from inflammability, which reduces the danger of fire and the cost of insurance. Hence it is used frequently as a harmless substitute for benzene and gasoline in cleaning clothes. An article on the subject appears in the *BURNHAM*. Mr. Henry A. Wain, a specialist paper on Modern Stereography is concluded.

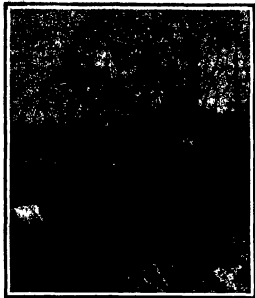
Recently Mr. W. Conway, of Leeds, read a paper before the Yorkshire Society on "The discovery of the 'Buller's Run'." Mr. Conway stated that there was no indication that the factory chimney would be supplanted by mechanical devices, as he had seen of the chimney being closed by such methods was only about one-third that of chimney draft. He pointed out that while steam power and water electricity had long been in use, machinery had not been so much used in the textile industry. The combustion of a full combustion of the chimney had, however, been reserved for this purpose, consisting of a pipe actuated by the draft of the chimney and having a graduated valve giving the desired weight of steam raised to the pump for the pump.



## Wireless Telegraph Apparatus for Contestants of the Glidden Tour

BY RENÉ HOMER

In the district selected for the annual Glidden tour this year, ordinary telegraph communication will be very difficult, and at times impossible. In 1909, although the tour passed through a comparatively well-settled country, the whereabouts of several of the contestants were often unknown for hours. One car, for instance, failed to report at the night control, and no one knew what had happened until the next morning. On another occasion a passenger was injured in an



Bamboo aerial set up in car.

accident, and nothing was known of the matter until it was reported by a belated tourist at the night checking in. Many minor difficulties were responsible for considerable delay that could have been prevented if the cars had been in communication with the last control.

The Chalmers-Detroit Company proposes to keep in touch with the contestants by means of wireless telegraphy. Complete plans have not been worked out yet, but it seems probable that some such scheme as the use of three field wireless stations will be favored, two of the stations carrying on communication, one of them being in touch with the wire system, while the third station is being established at some advantageous point ahead of the contestants. The exact details of the plan will be furnished after a trial car has had a chance to go over the worst portions of the proposed route.

In the early part of March successful wireless telegraph tests were made for the Chalmers-Detroit Company between one of its cars in Central Park, New York, and the old Terminal Building at Park Avenue and 42nd Street. The distance varied from one and one-half to three miles in the trial from a moving car, while the experiments with the portable field stations showed that this type of apparatus at least would be able to carry on certain communication up to fifty miles, as the field station was able to keep in communication without any trouble with the Metropolitan

and Manhattan Life towers and another wireless station at Newark. N. J. Later, communication was maintained between a car on the New Jersey highways near Trenton to the "sparkless" wireless station on the Land Title Building at Philadelphia, nearly thirty miles away.

The receiving station for running automobiles comprised a 7-foot aerial in connection, through a loose coupling, with a variable and a fixed condenser, a detector of the audion type, telephone receivers, and a high and low voltage battery. The sending set comprised two storage cells, a 10-inch spark coil, two Leyden jars, and a 3½-inch "radiotelephone" similar to those used at the Metropolitan and Manhattan Life stations. This apparatus, which worked successfully up to three miles, the farthest distance tried, would probably operate for several miles farther. The ground was secured by drawing between the rear wheels a bicycle tubing frame supported on four small wheels mounted on roller bearings the middle space being occupied by three 8-inch steel wheels with slide bearings arranged so as to allow the weight of the wheels to keep them in contact at all times with the road. On the macadamized roads of the park this system of grounding worked fairly well, although on the sandy roads of New Jersey, where the subsequent tests were made, a great deal of difficulty was experienced in properly maintaining the ground. The spraying of water over the contact wheels by means of a small rubber tube leading up into the car partially overcame this trouble, and no doubt subsequent experiments will provide a suitable way of securing a satisfactory ground contact, although it is true that probably for some time to come the speed of moving cars must be considerably limited for successful wireless work. The cars in the tests ran only about ten miles an hour.

Field stations which can be put up in five minutes can be operated more successfully and the same apparatus used in the automobile by stopping the machine and securing proper ground has a range of about ten miles. The sending circuit of the field stations used in the longer distance tests was the same as that of the moving stations with the exception that three storage cells instead of two were used, and another 10-inch spark coil was connected in parallel with the first coil, so as to be operated from the same key. This gave a range of about fifty miles.

The field sending station was provided with a 100-foot aerial secured at one end to a spreader attached to a 48-foot bamboo telescope mast and leading down diagonally to the top of a 12-foot mast about 90 feet away and thence back to the wireless apparatus about midway between the two poles.

Two of the photographs show the first successful test, in which a 35-foot aerial and a 6-inch spark coil actuated by one storage cell were used. With this apparatus, from Central Park, communication could be held with the laboratory at 42nd Street, about one and one-half to two miles away.

In the more recent tests additional condensers storage cells, and audion receiving accessories were used. The closer view shows a red-dot detector in use (top of the box to left) while a perikon detector is shown unconnected on the table in front of the other apparatus. The box upon which the operator is sitting con-

tains the interrupter, spark coil, and discharger, which are inclosed on account of their delicate nature and because they have not yet been protected by paint in the newer station all this apparatus is carried in the automobile, and there is no necessity for setting up the apparatus on the ground although the swap box does indeed make an admirable table for a wireless station.

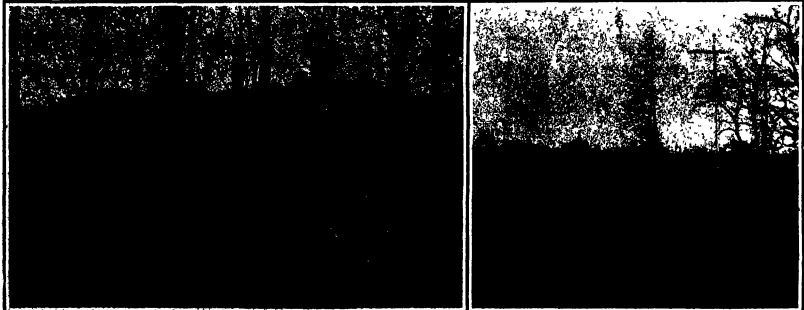
In the coming tour it is proposed to send two scout



Automobile wireless equipment.

cars ahead of the regular contestants, each one of which will carry the complete field set of even greater range than that which every car can carry. Points where the telegraphic facilities are poor or impossible will be picked out and the two cars will arrange to be at stations at these points just ahead of the pilot car. One station being equipped for business while the other is taking care of the telegraphic business of the tour. In this way one of the two field stations will be in operation all the time, while the other is being set up at the next point along the route.

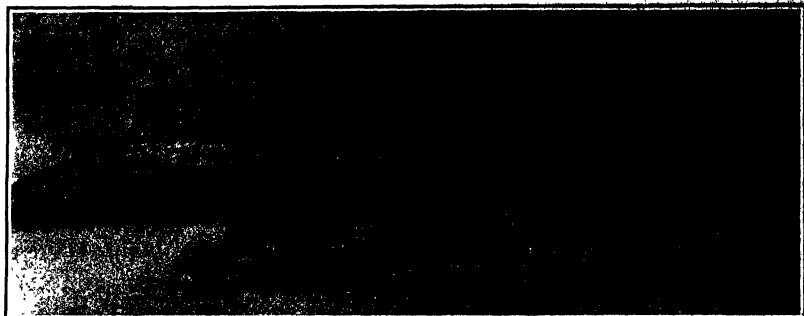
Disastrous as the floods in France have proved for the railways, a worse disaster occurred one day last winter in America. Three days previously a warm wind arose in the State of Nevada so suddenly as to melt all the snow. The result was such a torrent as to entirely wash away 100 miles of the San Pedro, Los Angeles and Salt Lake line south of Caliente. The route of this line was known to be rather liable to this, but was chosen as it saved much distance. Soon after its construction it was undermined by a storm, which did over \$500,000 damage to it. The engineers are now engaged in surveying the district in order to find a safer if longer and more costly route. Which ever route be chosen, it will be from six months to a year before the line can be built and the coal will, it is said, be from ten to fifteen million dollars.



The automobile equipment with the aerial and wireless apparatus.

Sending wireless messages from an automobile.

WIRELESS TELEGRAPH APPARATUS FOR CONTESTANTS OF THE GLIDDEN TOUR.



The practical success achieved with the gasoline-propelled motor sleds on the Shackleton and Charcot polar expeditions has prompted Capt. Scott to include a vehicle of this type for his forthcoming dash to the south pole. This vehicle is, however, distinctly different from the motor sleds hitherto used. In the two previous cases the front of the car was mounted on runners or skates, a chain and sprocket with apuds which gripped the snow and ice being fitted at the position occupied by the wheels in the ordinary motor car. In the new sled, however, what may be termed an adaptation of the pedrail or caterpillar system has been resorted to, which imparts a greater degree of efficiency to the vehicle, and enables

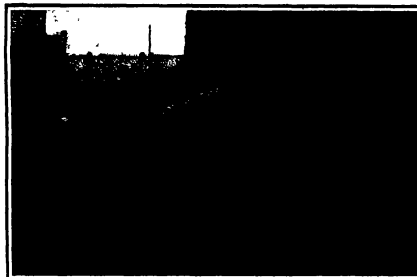
it to surmount obstacles and to travel over rough ice and snow with ease. In view of the conditions prevailing and the work it is intended to fulfill in the south polar regions, the engine is of a special type. It comprises four vertical cylinders, cast in pairs, and developing twelve brake horse-power.

The sled is fitted with a runner, upon which bear the rollers of the chain. The latter passing between this runner and the ground supports the whole vehicle and propels it as the wheels revolve. There are no brakes provided, as the big reduction ratio of the worm renders it completely irreversible, so that brakes are not necessary. Similarly, steering gear is dispensed with, as such is not requisite, for in any open

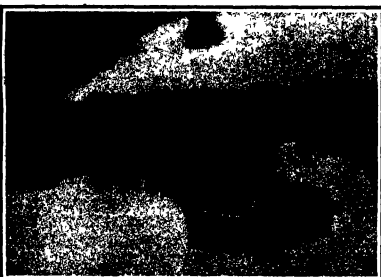
area such as an ice field steering is not demanded. When it is required to deviate to the right or left ropes attached to the front of the frame can perform this function. Turning sharp corners, under these circumstances, is admittedly exceedingly difficult, but when working in its designed sphere this drawback will not be serious, as sharp turning can be generally avoided.

The sled has a substantial wooden frame, and underneath is fitted a large undershield extending from end to end so as to present a perfectly smooth surface to the snow. When the sled is under way a curious track is observable. The chain, where it

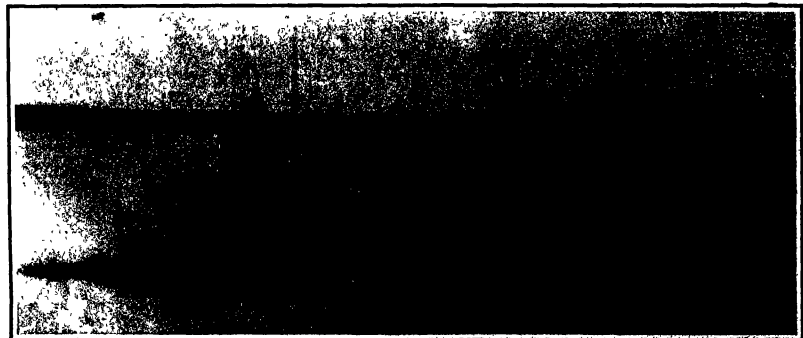
(Continued on page 407.)



Pedrail motor sled which Capt. Scott will use on his forthcoming antarctic expedition.



Capt. Scott's traction sled undergoing its tests in Norway.



A Swedish motor traction sled with a maximum speed of 34 miles an hour.

TWO MOTOR MOTOR SLEDS.

# THE FLIGHT FROM LONDON TO MANCHESTER

THE AVIATORS' OWN ACCOUNTS

Both White and Paulhan have furnished the London Daily Mail with accounts of their remarkable flight. White rose at 1.30 A. M. Twenty-four minutes later he was in the air. It was so dark that people were groping about with lanterns.

"As I stood by the side of my aeroplane," White states, "there was utter blackness facing me, faintly relieved in the distance by two or three twinkling lights, which I knew to be those of Roadside station."

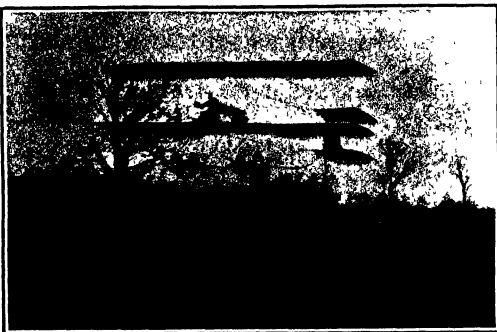
"My start was a confused jumble of scattering lights, which swept away swiftly below me. I could not judge my run along the ground, but I rose as speedily as possible. Directly I was in the air the lights of the railway station showed clearly below me, and I headed toward them. I could see absolutely nothing of the ground below me, it was all a black amorphous mass."

"I went right over the railway station lights and then, fortunately only for a second or so, my engine missed fire and I began to sink toward the busy darkness below me. I could have picked no landing, and it would have been a swift, steep glide to I know not what. And then, to my joy, my engine picked up again and I rose once more."

"Great difficulty presented itself in knowing in the darkness whether I was ascending or not. I had done no night flying before, but I soon became accustomed to watching closely the movements of my leveling plane, which was illuminated before me against the sky."

"I steered on for a spell with nothing at all to guide me. After leaving the lights of Roadside behind, the gleam from an occasional signal box far below helped me, however, and so I picked my way through the night to bilgewater."

"Here I felt surer of my ground and bore away to



Grubshaw White leaving Rugby.

few of till I was over the town. I saw the lights of Rugby. I was over the town, and forged ahead.

"Daylight began to come now, and from here on to the point of my descent in a field near Poleworth my struggle was not with the darkness, but with the wind

Not a moment's rest came to me in my battle against the gusts."

"Glance at my altitude chart and you will see that I made rise and dips of as much as 120 feet always with the object of flying in the shallowest level of air I could find."

"After the start I was going north for a long time before I sighted the special train which was accompanying me, but there was no mistaking it when it caught me up, with three head lights of the whistle and a big white signal cloth flowing from the window of the rear coach."

"It looked like a handkerchief from such a height but it told me all. I could see that things were going well. The wind whistled and so did I."

"I flew until it was quite dark. All I could make out beneath me was the smudge of the train once in a while and the occasional flicker of lights from a village."

"I came down rapidly from 300 meters to 100, so that I could be more certain of my direction. Then came the most exciting moment of my flight. Darkness had fallen and before me I saw the lights of Lichfield. I decided to alight in some convenient meadow before reaching the town and to do this I sank down to 150 feet. I was immediately above what looked like a large factory with a chimney. I am now told it was a brewery. And so, to alight safely in a field with no damage done, I made a haphazard turn, and my machine was now pointing toward London."

"Suddenly my motor stopped. Every drop of petrol had been exhausted and the machine swooped down ward almost like a stone dropping."

"What should I do? Necessity was the brewery."



White's aeroplane after landing.

the left for Weedon. Faint lights shone here and there. Some, no doubt, were cottage windows and others, I think, were the head lights of motor-cars. I passed over Weedon, my eyes becoming more accustomed to the darkness."

"On I flew. The weirdness of the sensation can scarcely be described. I was alone in the darkness, with the roar of my engine in my ears. As I glanced back small bright flashes of light, the discharge of the exhaust gases from the motor, flashed out in the night."

"Then I lost my way, with no railway lights to guide me, for a spell. I steered off to the right. I wheeled and turned, wondering what I should do, but then a light to my left caught my eye, and I worked my way back to the railway line again."

"At a little inn by the roadside near the village of Crick a friend had promised to draw up his motor car, shining its headlights upon the wall to act as a guide for me. I was keenly on the lookout for this unmistakable light sign, and, sure enough, I saw it quite distinctly below me soon after I left Weedon station behind."

"I deviated a little from my course and headed for this patch of light. I saw the motor car moving as I approached, with its headlights throwing a great path of light down the roadway. It set off at a break-neck pace, its driver evidently meaning to guide me so my way."

"Leaving the railway line on my left, I followed the light of the motor car, and for a mile or so I hovered almost directly above it, allowing it to act as my pilot. But while I was doing so I chanced to glance over to the left. A train. Coming down the railway line I spotted a goods train. It was making for Rugby."

"This, I thought, will be a splendid guide, and so I swung away from the lights of the motor car and

It was the fierce gusts which eventually brought me down."

Paulhan, too, seems to have been troubled by the winds, for he bears out White's account. He writes: "I had to fight the wind all the way from London.



Recharging the gasoline tank of White's machine.

THE FLIGHT FROM LONDON TO MANCHESTER.

and a certain smash, behind me was a narrow field, which was almost like a spider's web with its mesh of telegraph wires.

"I had an imperceptible fraction of a second in which to make up my mind, and I decided to risk the telegraph wires. As I said I made a sharp twist right back on the line of my course, and was lucky enough to lift myself over the wire.

"I went to bed at 1 o'clock deciding to start again as soon as it was light or even a little earlier. I slept like a top for five hours.

"It was still dark when I reached the narrow meadow behind the Trent Valley station in which my machine was lying. My mechanic had worked well during the night. The machine was charged with petrol and air was all ready for the start.

"Happily, favored with the headwind I was then facing, though it was a following wind for my flight, I rose without difficulty, turned, and headed straight for Manchester.

"Here was the end of my career about the issue of the race. Barring accidents, I was bound now to reach Manchester in safety and in good time, and there was no reason to anticipate accident, for I had surmounted the worst of the difficulties—that of a rise from a narrow field only 120 yards long above dim lanterns which were my only indications as to the whereabouts of the bodge.

"As soon as I got up I made a circle, followed the railway, and then set off for Crew, fighting all the way against gusts of wind. So thermal current I feel of the road that I did not trouble to take my map on the

recession, northwest, total movement, 5,169 miles; average hourly velocity, 12.7, maximum velocity, 44 miles per hour. Weather. Clear days, 7, partly cloudy, 18; cloudy, 10, on which 0.01 or more of precipitation occurred, 11. Mean relative humidity, 68.1. Dense fog, 4th and 10th. Thunderstorms, 6th and 25th. Frosts. Light, 14th, heavy, 18th.

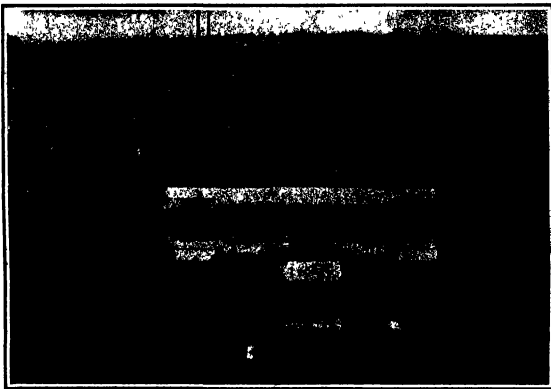
#### COMPLETION OF THE PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD TUNNELS AND TERMINAL STATION.

As late as the year 1901 the Pennsylvania Railroad was employing ferriss to land its passengers in New York City just as it did in 1871, when it first joined the United Railroads of New Jersey. Ten years ago the system was hauling freight to Eastern cities over practically the same heavy grades as were to be encountered in 1871. Today the company is completing a monumental improvement in and around New York City which will enable passengers to travel from eastern, western and Long Island points direct into Manhattan Island, arriving at a railroad station which, for convenience and for the beauty and dignity of its architectural appearance, probably outranks any similar building in existence.

During the past ten years the company has spent an enormous sum of money in straightening out its line to the East, and in cutting down grades, and in a few months' time freight trains which are already traveling over the new lines, on which they encounter no grades greater than twelve feet to the mile, will be run direct to large terminal wharves on the New Jersey shore of upper New York Bay, and for

the original street surface, extend from Ninth Avenue to Seventh Avenue. From Tenth to Ninth Avenue the yard occupies more than the area of a city block, and from Ninth Avenue to Seventh Avenue the huge excavation covers the whole width between Thirty-first and Thirty-third Streets. The excavation covers therefore over five of the largest city blocks, and it involved the removal of over 5,000,000 cubic yards of material. Proceeding westerly from the terminal yard, the tracks, four in number, are carried below Thirty-second and Thirty-third Streets to the East River, under which they pass in four separate tubes. The grade descending to the river is 1.5 per cent, and the ascending grade to Long Island are 0.7 and 1.32 per cent.

The new terminal station located between Thirty-first and Thirty-third Streets, and Seventh and Eighth Avenues, is a truly magnificent structure, built of granite on classical lines. The terminal work was carried out under Mr. George Gibbs as chief engineer, to whom we are indebted for courtesies during the preparation of the present article. The main entrance to the station, on Seventh Avenue, leads through an arcade forty-five feet wide by two hundred and twenty-five feet long, to the main waiting room, which, with its width of 108 feet and length of 277 feet, and clear height of 150 feet, ranks as the largest in the world. Just what these dimensions mean is shown by our front page engraving, which portrays the central portion of the New York City Hall with its tower, standing on the floor of the waiting room, with the top of its flag pole falling to reach the roof by fully ten feet.



The crowd on Wornout Wood Avenue awaiting White's start.



Flagpole in full flight.

#### THE FLIGHT FROM LONDON TO MANCHESTER.

second stage of the journey. This was a mistake, for after leaving Crew I thought the first station marked my landing place, but I could discover none of the marks I expected to find there, and I had to circle back toward London before I picked up the whitewashed marks on sleepers which directed me onward.

"I made yet another mistake in my route, and had to curve in yet another circle backward, but at last I saw the new station at Burnage, which was my objective, and I saw the white marks in the field where I was to land.

"I landed and I knew I had won. All the way from London it had been a fight between me and a puzzling wind, and I had beaten the wind."

Official Meteorological Summary, New York, N. Y., April, 1910.

Atmospheric pressure. Highest, 30.88, lowest, 29.57, mean, 29.93. Temperature. Highest, 73, date, 30th, lowest, 34, date, 8th, mean of warmest day, 64, date, 14th, coolest day, 41, date, 8th; mean of maximum for the month, 62.1, mean of minimum, 48.8, absolute maximum, 84.0, normal, 48.1, daily excess compared with the mean of 40 years, 6.9. Warmest mean temperature of April, 64. In 1871 and 1910, coldest mean 41, in 1874. Absolute maximum and minimum of April for 40 years, 82 and 30. Average daily excess above January 1st, 47. Precipitation, 4.33, greatest in 24 hours, 2.25, date, 25th and 26th, average for April for 40 years, 1.30. Excess above normal, 1.57. Accumulated excess since January 1st, 0.14. Greatest precipitation, 7.02 1874, least, 1.00, in 1881. Wind. Prevailing di-

rected across to Bay Ridge, Long Island. The company is about to construct a four-track arch bridge across the East River near Hell Gate, and when this is completed trains will be run through Long Island from Bay Ridge to Port Morris, where connections will be made with the New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroad. Passengers from the South, Southwest, and West, over the Pennsylvania Railroad system, by using the North River and East River tunnels and the Hell Gate bridge, will be enabled to travel without change of cars between New England and the West by way of New York City. These stupendous works, which will have cost in the aggregate, including the revision of the western line, over \$150,000,000, were conceived mainly during the administration of the late A. J. Cassatt, former president of the company.

Commencing at the western end of the New York tunnel system, we find at Harrison, New Jersey, a large terminal and transfer station, where passenger trains from the South and West drop their steam locomotives, and the electric locomotives, which haul them into New York City, are coupled on. The tracks run on a high embankment across the Hackensack meadows to Bergen Hill, where they enter the western portal of the twin tunnels. They descend on a grade of 1.8 per cent to a level about 100 feet below mean high water of the Hudson River, which level is reached about one-third of the distance from the Jersey shore. The line then rises on grades of 0.5 and 1.85 per cent until the station yard is reached at Tenth Avenue. The yard and the station, which have been excavated to an average depth of fifty feet below

Opening out from this room are two smaller waiting rooms, each 68 by 100 feet, which are provided with the usual retiring rooms. On the same level also is the main baggage room, 440 feet in length. The bag is brought in, and carried away, through a special subway, the trunks, etc., being delivered to the truck below by motor trucks and elevators. Passing through the main waiting room, the traveler will find himself on a vast concourse 210 feet wide, which extends the full width of the station and parallel with the large waiting room. From the concourse, stairs lead down to the train platforms on the track level below, which is forty feet below the street surface. The concourse, which is 840 feet long, is covered by a lofty roof of light steel columns and trusses and glass. Between the concourse and the tracks is a sub-concourse, sixty feet in width, which will be used for outgoing passengers only.

The Thirty-third Street side of the station will be devoted to the Long Island Railroad service. It will be provided with its own entrances and exits, and the traffic will be handled independently of the western traffic.

In the design of the exterior of the station, the architects, McKim, Mead & White, endeavored to give to the building the character of a monumental entrance to the commercial metropolis of the country, which would at the same time conform to the traditional aspect of a great railway terminus. Also the station was designed to give as true a circulation as possible for the many millions that will speedily pass through it. The main facade on Seventh Avenue is

composed of a Roman Doric colonnade, with columns four feet six inches in diameter and thirty-five feet high. Allowing for its much greater scale, the main entrance is comparable to the Brandenburg gate in Berlin. The main body of the building is about the same height as the Bourse de Paris, reaching, as it does, seventy-six feet above the street level. The main entrance on Thirty-second Street is at the corner of this facade, and at each corner is a sixty-three-foot wide carriage drive, fronted by double columns and pediments. Midway along the Thirty-first and Thirty-third Street sides of the building are similar columns and entrances to that on Seventh Avenue.

The passenger station building, which is 784 feet long by 430 feet wide, covers some eight acres of ground, and the construction of the exterior walls, which are nearly half a mile in length, required nearly half a million cubic yards of pink granite. This and other stone work in the building ran up to a total of 47,000 tons, and to transport it from Milford, Mass., called for the service of 1,140 freight cars. Into the construction of the building there has also entered 37,000 tons of steel and 48,000 tons of brick.

The statistics of dimensions and quantities of material are of such interest that we present the following from among those supplied by the railway company.

Area (10th Avenue to aerial tunnel)	
- section east of 7th Avenue	28 acres
Length of tracks	16 miles
Number of standing tracks at station	16
Number of passenger platforms	11
Total excavation required	8,000,000 cubic yards
Length of retaining walls	7,800 feet
Number of linear feet of streets and avenues carried on bridges	4,400, or an area of about 8 acres.
Concrete required for retaining walls, foundations, street bridging and sub-structures	160,000 cubic yards
Number of columns supporting station building	600
Greatest weight on one column	1,800 tons
Number of buildings removed on terminal area, about	500
Water capacity of service power plant	5,000 horse power
Ultimate	
Net length of tunnel (2-track), Jersey City Long Island	5.5 miles

After passing under the East River the four tubes reach Sunnyside Yard, the terminus of the Long Island tunnel extension, which covers some 158 acres

of land. It contains 73 miles of track, and has a capacity of 1,950 cars. From the Sunnyside yard there are tracks leading to the New York connecting railroad, which will form a junction with the New Haven Railroad at Port Morris.

An important feature of the New York tunnel extension is its relation to the Long Island Railroad, which is subsidiary to the Pennsylvania system. It is estimated that forty minutes will be saved between Long Island points and New York city by the operation of trains through the East River tunnels to the Pennsylvania station at Thirty-third Street.

The construction of the tubes beneath the Hudson and the East rivers has been so fully described in previous issues that it will be sufficient here merely to recapitulate the principal features of this work. The tubes under the Hudson River were driven by a special shield designed by Charles M. Jacobs, who is also well known as the chief engineer of the four Hudson River tubes which were simultaneously being driven for the Hudson Company's system of rapid transit tunnels. Contract for the North River tunnels was let to the O'Rourke Engineering and Construction Company. The shields were thrust forward by twenty-four rams capable of exerting a pressure of 3,400 tons. At first, the silt and other material were removed through the doors in the front of the shield, later, however, the shields were pushed bodily through the material, and only about one-third of it was removed through the tunnel, being admitted through the doors in its lower face. The cast-iron lining of the tunnel is twenty-three feet interior diameter. The interior is lined with two feet of concrete making the finished interior diameter of the tunnel nineteen feet. The weight of the cast-iron lining, with bolts, is from 9,609 to 13,177 pounds per linear foot of tunnel. The weight of the finished tunnel with the heavier lining, when concreted up and equipped, is 31,489 pounds per linear foot. The weight of the silt displaced, per linear foot of tunnel, is 41,848 pounds. The weight of the tunnel with the maximum train load is 41,868 pounds per linear foot.

Thanks to the very able and efficient engineering staff, the excellence of the contractors' equipment, and the harmony with which all concerned entered into the task of driving these tunnels, the work was carried through practically without a hitch, and considerably faster than the most sanguine expectations

The driving of the tunnels beneath the East River, which was in charge of Alfred Noble, Past President of the American Society of Civil Engineers, was done by S. Pearson & Son, the contractors, of London. Because of the great variety and difficult nature of the material through which the tubes passed, much trouble was experienced at various times with blowouts, but ultimately these difficulties were mastered and the tubes pushed through to successful completion.

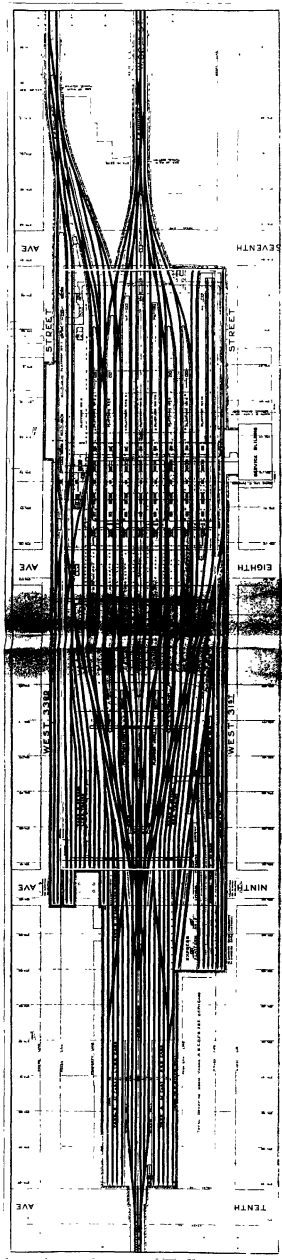
In addition to the many millions the Pennsylvania Railroad is spending on the four tunnels under the East River, and the station and terminal in Manhattan, all of which will greatly benefit Long Island, the Long Island Railroad is increasing its own facilities in all directions, so as to adequately care for the larger traffic which will result from the completion of the tunnels. The contemplated works will necessitate an expenditure on the Long Island system of more than thirty million dollars. The new service will include a six-track line from the mouth of the tunnels to Woodside, 2½ miles, one mile of 8-track road, Woodside to Winfield, two miles of 8-track road, Winfield to Glendale cut-off, and 4½ miles of 4-track road thence to Jamaica. Trains will run from Thirty-third Street, Manhattan, to Jamaica in 18 minutes, to Garden City in 34 minutes, to Mineola in 34 minutes; to Far Rockaway in 33 minutes, to Flushing in 16 minutes, and to Great Neck in 28 minutes.

We will close by giving some of the startling statistics of population which in the judgment of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company fully warranted the enormous outlay involved in the great works which the company has undertaken. The population included within a circle of nineteen miles drawn from the City Hall in Manhattan as a center, was in 1890 2,338,998, in 1900 it had increased to 4,612,152 and in 1905 it had grown to 5,404,658. It is estimated that by 1915 the population of this territory will be about 6,000,000 people, and in 1920, 8,000,000. The railroads that have their terminus on the western bank of the Hudson River carried nearly 59,000,000 people in 1886. In 1890 they carried over 72,000,000, in 1898 more than 94,000,000, and in 1906 they carried about 140,000,000 people. The significance of these figures was fully considered by the Pennsylvania Railroad, and the vast works they have undertaken are thought to be fully justified by the present and prospective growth of travel within the areas affected.

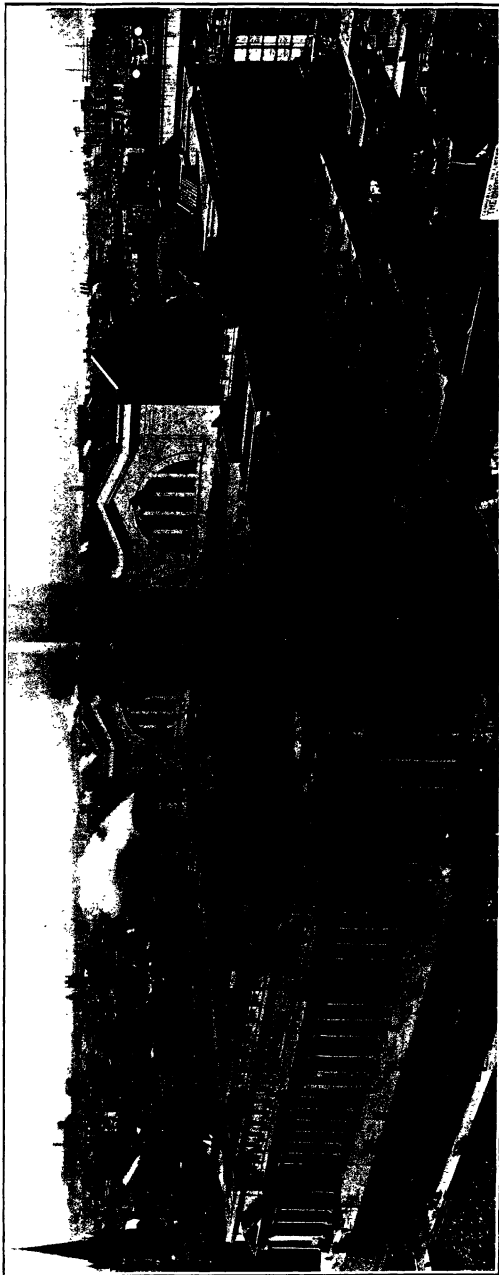
Below the waiting room (2nd floor) by NY Road the passengers enter the concourse (3rd floor) from which they descend by stairways to the arrival and departure platforms below.

Interior view showing the concourse and the station platforms.

COMPARISON OF THE PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD TUNNELS AND TERMINAL PLATFORMS.



PLAN OF THE HUGOB SURFACE STATION YARD OF THE PENNSYLVANIA TERMINAL, MANHATTAN ISLAND



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE SUPER STEEL AND GRANITE TERMINAL STATION OF THE PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD ON MANHATTAN ISLAND



# HOW TO BUILD A HOUSEBOAT FOR \$300.

BY FRANKLIN K. LLOYD

The proposition of spending a summer afloat is one which appeals to many persons fond of the water, but the cost of a yacht large enough to accommodate comfortably a family for a protracted period is prohibitive to the majority, therefore people swelter ashore in hot and uncomfortable hotels, and snatch such enjoyment from the water as chance and circumstances permit.

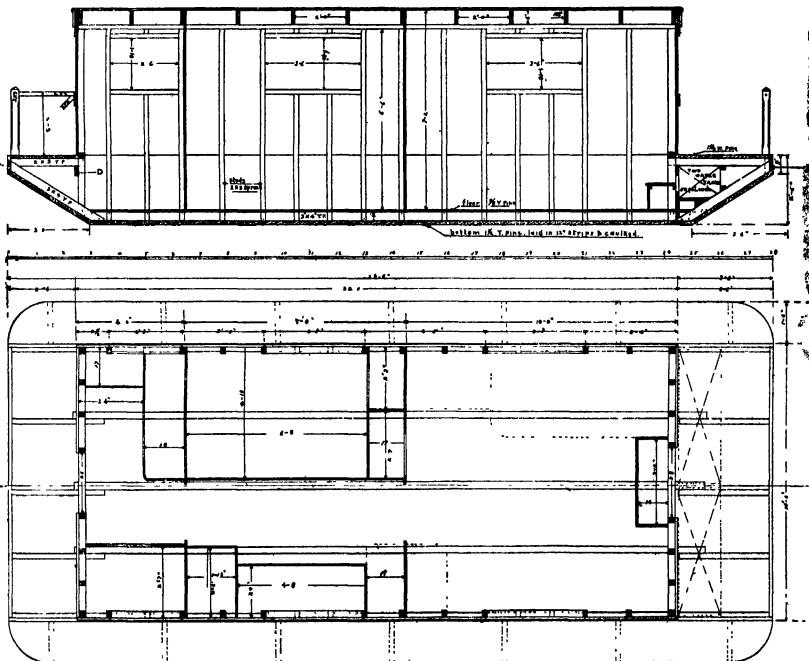
during the summer season under equally comfortable conditions. The cost of the boat would vary, according to whether it was built by amateurs and how elaborately it was constructed and fitted up. A moderate price shipbuilder should build this boat complete with toilet and water tanks for five hundred dollars. As the boat is very simple in construction amateurs should be able to build it for about three hundred dollars. At a small additional cost an awning could be rigged over the house-top, thereby providing a fine, large, cool lounging space.

For those interested in building such a boat themselves the following hints on construction may prove useful.

The first step in construction is to prepare the ground and build the sides and bottom of the hull. The ground should be prepared by driving posts and string strings and blocks so placed that the hull may rest during construction on an absolutely level plane. By doing this a level and plumb line can be used to get the house and its compartments built plumb and true. After the building foundation is prepared, start by

so that they touch on the inside and are open about  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch outside. This is to allow the caulking to be driven in and to prevent its being pushed clear through to the inside, by putting the hull together the large galvanized iron boat nails about 4 or 4½ inches long. The corner log, A, should be fastened to the sides with  $\frac{1}{2}$  inch galvanized iron rivets, and the bottom planking should be fastened to both log and sides. Be careful that the planking lies perfectly flat and true before fastening, otherwise leaks will surely develop, which are hard to stop. Paint should be applied and a few threads of cotton laid along the edge of the sides to help make a water-tight job. After the bottom is on three 2 x 4-inch yellow pine stringers, C, should be fitted and nailed from the underside of the bottom. Carry these stringers up, to the ends as shown in the plans. This gives us the bare hull, and we can now proceed with the house frame and small decks at each end.

It might be well first to call attention to the two water tanks that are shown in the drawing. If these are to be put in it is well to do it now, otherwise some



CROSS-SECTIONAL PLAN AND SIDE VIEWS SHOWING CONSTRUCTIONAL DETAILS OF THE HOUSEBOAT.

A solution of the problem of living cheaply and comfortably afloat is found in the houseboat. Such a life offers many charms and advantages. It is generally cooler on the water, and the air is fresher and better being free from dust and land smells. Bathing is always "on tap," and the entertainment of friends is accompanied with more charm and privacy than in a "bedded summer hotel." If the locality becomes tiresome the houseboat can be towed to another harbor for a few dollars and there is no packing of trunks or tipping of servants when getting out of town.

The plans herewith shown represent a small houseboat capable of accommodating four or five persons comfortably for a very moderate price. It would cost four persons fifty dollars a week at an average-priced summer hotel. This amounts to six hundred dollars for three months, without extras. The boat shown here could be built for less than that. Then at the end of summer it could easily be sold for more than half its value or kept for another year. In any case there would be a very large saving over living ashore

getting out the sides. These are of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inch yellow pine, laid three strikes to a side. As the depth of the hull is 30 inches the sum of the three planks should be 84½ inches to allow for the thickness of the bottom. The sides are held together by temporary strips of wood secured to them. When thus secured fasten on the lower inside edges a yellow pine corner log 2 x 4 inches as shown in the cross section plan at A. The object of this is to stiffen the edges and afford extra nailing surface for the bottom planks. Now set up the sides in their proper places on the building foundation and be very careful to see that they are perfectly plumb and level, otherwise the whole structure will be crooked. Nail three or four strips across the bottom to hold it in place and then put in the end pieces of the hull. These are of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inch yellow pine. Next put on the planks which extend from the end pieces to the bottom. These planks, as well as the bottom ones, are of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inch yellow pine, and about 12 inches in width. Proceed to put on the bottom by beginning at both ends and working toward the middle. Plane the planks

of the deck beams and deck ottoput be laid, and it is more trouble to put them in later. They should be of 1½-inch galvanized iron and fitted with filling planks to come flush with the outside of the deck. The supply pipes can be run under the cabin flooring before it is put down.

The next members to put up are the stiff beams to take the weather boarding of the house. The beams are of 2 x 4-inch spruce. They should be put into lengths of 6 feet 11 inches. Jog them over the corner log, A, and securely nail them to it. Fasten them to the side of the hull with short galvanized iron nails, care being taken to get several very good fastenings in the lower side plank. The spacing of these beams will vary on account of the position of the windows and partitions. The way to do this is to put up first all the beams that come at window openings and partitions and then space up to equal the intervening beams. The construction plan shows the dimensions and position of the beams. A side view of a 4-inch beam, 6 feet 11 inches long, at the lower end of the house, shows the











## Two Novel Snow Sleds

(Continued from page 398)  
topped the ground, appears to stand still, while the sleigh slides over it. This is the motion that actually takes place, for the top of the chain travels forward at twice the speed of the sleigh. It will thus be seen that in reality the lower part of the chain in contact with the ground constitutes a surface over which the vehicle itself can move.

The driver has his position on a box behind the engine, which seat forms a cockpit for tools, spare parts and other accessories. That the vehicle has great climbing power has been conclusively proved, for it will ascend steep banks of earth and ride over serious obstacles easily and without any appreciable diminution in speed.

Although this sleigh can carry a party and full equipment, its actual function is to act as a tractor for the haulage of ordinary sledges, the trailing vehicles carrying the loads. From completion by the builders, the tractor was taken to Norway by Capt. Scott, and submitted to some exacting trials on snow covered Lake Peffer and the tumbled country in its vicinity, where the conditions were somewhat analogous to those prevailing around the south pole. Heavily laden trailing sledges were hauled on to the tractor and numerous journeys were made among the Norwegian ice fields. The vehicle proved itself fully capable of withstanding rough usage, and Capt. Scott expressed his complete satisfaction with the results achieved.

Very different from this sled in design is one which has lately been put to a series of severe running tests on all kinds of ice and snow in the district of the Hilan Lake, Sweden. The accompanying photograph of the motor sleigh was taken in the Easter days of this year, after the above-mentioned tests had been carried out.

The design differs from that of other automobile sleighs in the driving mechanism. The sleigh is propelled by two driving wheels, each fitted with a runner of steel paddle between which an elastic frame is fixed. This simple construction thus combines the advantages of a paddle wheel and the sled runner, thus having the propelling capacity of the former on fixed ice and snow surfaces, and the supporting and friction capacity of the latter on loose snow. The flexibility of the frame tends further to prevent the snow from clogging by extruding it from the paddles. The driving wheels run in the tracks made by the sleigh runners, and thus tend to make a good contact surface for the paddle wheels. In case the snow is not so compressed enough by the runners, the paddle wheels sink by their own weight into the snow, and compress it sufficiently by means of the frame. The paddles engage with the compact snow by cutting through the crust as knives, and work on account of their breadth, against such a large wedge of the frozen surface, that an effective counter pressure is obtained which would otherwise be impossible if the driving wheels were, for instance, provided with spikes instead of paddles. The sleigh is in this instance driven by a four-horsepower double-cylinder air-cooled gasoline motor. The motor sleigh illustrated is deemed to serve only as a traction engine, to which any kind of sleigh can easily be attached or detached within a few minutes.

It is of course possible to make a motor sleigh as self-contained as an ordinary automobile, and the electrically-driven tow-vehicles of this sleigh were successfully built in this way.

The motor sleigh is governed by means of a very ingenious and reliable steering device for remote hand operation. The power required for steering is transmitted from the operating hand-wheel through flexible steel tubes to the motor. In the tests a speed of 14 miles an hour over a smooth ice surface was attained. When traveling over the snow and ice-covered roads, which were in a very bad

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condition on account of the prevailing thaw, a speed of 10 miles an hour was attained, the total weight drawn being over one ton. During a running test several consecutive hours, the average speed was 18 miles an hour.

The inventor is a Swedish engineer, Mr. H. Hakanson.

An Industrial Laboratory for the Improvement of the Zinc-dust Lamp. Although the establishment of a research laboratory by a large manufacturing organization is not a novelty, the inception by such an organization of a laboratory which has for its object the development of science rather than the improvement of some industrial commodity is probably without precedent. For that reason, Mr. E. F. Hyde calls attention in a recent number of Science to the new physical laboratory of the National Electric Lamp Association, even though it is still only in a formative state. The object of this laboratory is scientific, the specific purpose being the development of those branches of science with which the art of lighting is closely associated. The fundamental idea which has prevailed in the organization of the work is the proper co-ordination of physics and physiology, the proper cooperation of the physicist, the physiologist and perhaps the psychologist.

The organization of the laboratory is proceeding with this idea as the foundation. The development contemplates no sharp distinctions among the different divisions of the work. The problems to be investigated, however, group themselves roughly into three classes, and therefore require, in order to insure the proper attention to each, a threefold division in the organization. The three groups of problems to be investigated may be classified as (1) those that have to do with the production of luminous energy, (2) those that have to do with the utilization of luminous energy, and (3) those that have to do with the effects of luminous and attendant radiation.

Under the first class will come the investigation of the laws of radiation, and of the radiating properties of matter. The problem in this class are purely physical, and the corresponding division will be intrusted to a competent physicist.

Under the third class will come the investigation of the effects of light and the attendant radiations on the eye, on the skin and on microscopic organisms. The problems in this class are physiological, and the corresponding division is under the charge of a trained experimental physiologist.

Intermediate between these two classes of problems (the first and the third) are those that are distinctly different, there is another (the second) which forms the connecting link. Touching on one side the physical production of light, and on the other the physiological effects of light, this intermediate division of the work will embrace most of the scientific problems peculiar to illuminating engineering. Investigations of the absorbing, reflecting and diffusing properties of matter, the measurement of light, i. e., photometry, and the study of the complex phenomena of color and color sensation, properly come within the scope of this department of the work.

Scientific Class Group. Messrs. AMET and Glaser recently presented a paper to the Académie des Sciences concerning the good results obtained in the production of color by wearing the apple with an oxidizing solution (as much as is the usual beverage of the population of the north and west) and its manufacture should concern hygienists as well as technicians. In many cases the quality of the product is much inferior to what it should be; the present well carried out research, the apple is indispensable to free them from the impurities which they carry, but we must also take account of the defective quality of the water which is available in many cases. The authors' previous research (Concluded on page 408)

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is 5½ inches in diameter and was bent cold—flat upon itself as shown, without a sign of a crack or fracture.

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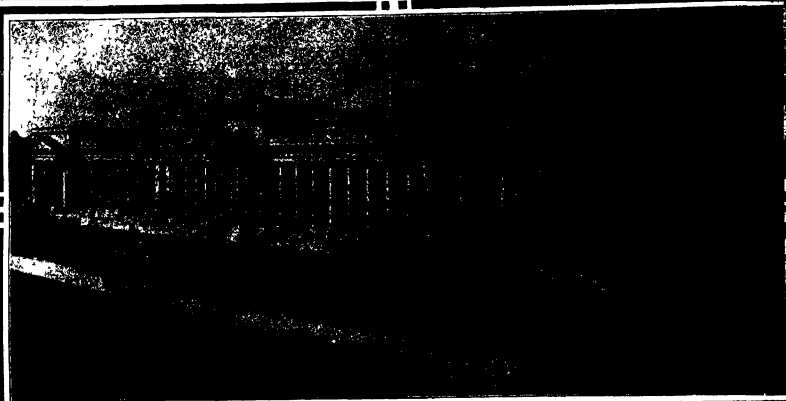












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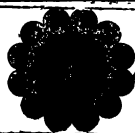
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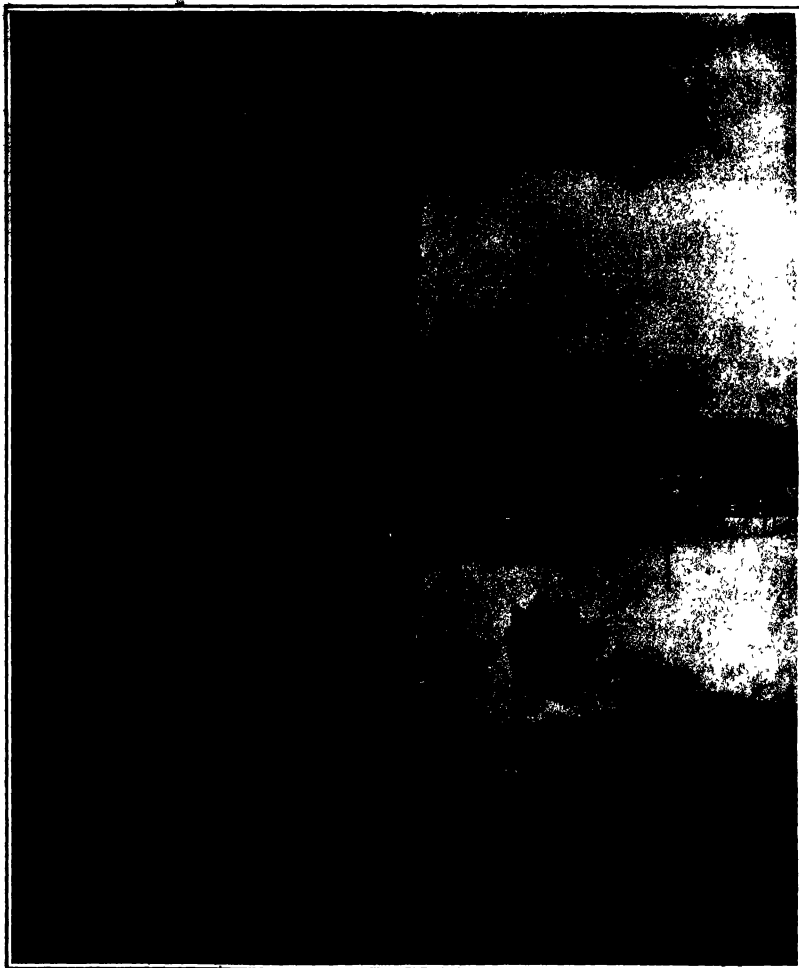
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Vol. CXX—No. 21.  
PUBLISHED WEEKLY

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THE LAKEVIEW GUSHER, CALIFORNIA.—THE MOST PROFITABLE OIL WELL IN THE WORLD.—[See page 419.]





## COMET NOTES.

The Lowell Observatory has issued a bulletin on the 1910 Preliminary Notes on Photographs and Spectrographic Observations of Halley's Comet. The observations consist principally of direct photographs of the comet and photographs of its spectrum as seen at Flagstaff. Halley's comet before April 15th had shown no very striking changes, except in the divergence or separation of the lateral streamers. Negatives obtained on April 25th and 27th show marked changes in the form of the tail. On the 25th the tail, at a short distance from the head divided into three narrow streamers, a central ray and two symmetrical side branches. On photographs made on the following morning the tail was again quite narrow and straight. On the 27th it was again branched. The most remarkable changes noticed at Flagstaff in the comet's tail were observed on photographs made on April 16th and May 1st. On April 16th the tail had completely changed in form. The more or less bilateral symmetry had entirely disappeared. The plates of May 1st show for a distance of about 70 deg a tail well defined with a gentle curvature, but beyond this point faint and diffuse. The outer parts of the tail on the last two plates have the appearance of having been acted upon and shattered by some rather sudden and disturbing disintegrating force. The comet's nearest approach to Venus occurred about this time. The question naturally arises, could the planet have been the disturbing influence? Comparisons of the disappearance of the comet's tail for some days before and after this event may tell us something.

The great square of Pegasus acted as a splendid "finder" both for the comet of 1910 A and for Halley's comet. This mutual association of the two comets with Pegasus affords a good example of one of the chief difficulties experienced by those astronomers who have endeavored to trace Halley's comet amid the mass of brief and very general records of comets in ancient chronicles.

It is unfortunate that the chance of capturing a sample of the tail of Halley's comet was not seized. The passage of the earth through a comet's tail is so rare an occurrence that no opportunity should be missed. In the April number of the Bulletin de la Société Astronomique de France, C. B. Guillaume suggested the liquefaction of a large quantity of air which could afterward be treated by fractional distillation, and possibly some cometary matter recognized. He pointed out that very minute quantities of the rare gases, such as krypton and argon, are thus secured from immense volumes of air and that it is now possible to liquefy 1000 cubic meters of air per hour. It is just possible that by this means a chemical study of the comet might become a by-product of an industrial operation.

An investigation of Encke's comet by Dr. Backlund shows that the acceleration of the mean motion of that body between 1856-1901 and 1904 was not constant. Dr. Backlund suggests that the resistance which would explain the phenomenon is a meteoric swarm in the neighborhood of perihelion, and that the decrease of the acceleration must be attributed rather to the diminution of the density of the resisting medium than to changes in the comet itself. Dr. Backlund also discusses the comet's fluctuations in brightness, but offers no explanation.

The passage of the earth through the tail of Halley's comet has led Flammarion to suggest that if there is any palpable material at so great a distance from the head it might be possible to measure the minute rise of temperature produced by the earth as it rushed through the tail at the rate of 48 miles a second.

Although comet A 1910 has sped away its peculiarities are still the subject of astronomical comment. Thus Dr. Wolf comments upon a central mass of material extending from the base of the comet toward the sun, quite different

not from anything seen in previous comets, and having the appearance of a miniature solar light.

It was to be expected that the appearance of Halley's comet would not remain without its effect upon the more ignorant peoples of the world, even though this

ious appearances without ill effects, in order to reassure the natives. This Chinese situation finds its counterpart in Europe. The episode of a Sicilian farmer "on account of Halley's comet," as the newspapers have it, is followed by a report from Odessa that in Southern Russia there is a veritable popular terror which is being exploited by unscrupulous persons for the purpose of obtaining money for special prayers, etc.

Observations of Halley's comet made in Harvard College Observatory on the morning of May 15th led to the following results. The brightness of the nucleus of the comet was measured by Prof. Wendell with the 15-inch equatorial, with the resulting magnitude 7.04. The nucleus was, therefore, distinctly fainter than on April 27th, when its magnitude was 6.01. The total light of the comet was greater, being estimated by Mr. Campbell as magnitude 2.3. Three photographs were obtained by Mr. King which showed a well-defined nucleus. A long tail was shown, which was bifurcated.

## THE ACCIDENT TO THE "ZEPPELIN"

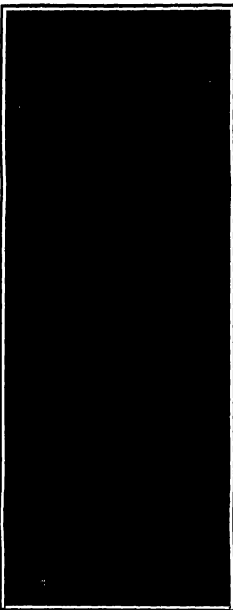
The recent destruction of the "Zeppelin" airship again drives home the inherent defects of the rigid type of airship. While journeying from Hamburg to Cologne, it was necessary to anchor the airship in an open field. On April 29th, at 1 P. M., after the vessel had received a new charge of gas, it was torn from its anchor by a storm, and driven away in a northwesterly direction. The airship came down at Weiburg in the vicinity of Weiburg on the River Lahn, and was totally destroyed. Two companies of soldiers were unable to hold the vessel against the terrible storm. In order to prevent a catastrophe, it was necessary to order the soldiers to release the airship, which immediately rose to a height of 700 feet, and was driven away in the direction of Weiburg. At 30 minutes past one the airship was sighted from Weiburg. Suddenly, probably caused by a downward gust, the vessel was forced down into the Lahn valley. In the Lahn valley, where the storm raged violently, the wind blew the vessel broadside and pressed it down to the earth. The nose dipped almost into the Lahn, which winds through the valley. Then the bow of the "Zeppelin" was caught in the telegraph wires which run along the railway. The metal frame was twisted. Trees were bent and telegraph poles were torn down, and with a trifling noise the wind hurried the enormous gas bag against the side of a hill and forced it into the trees. Another gust of wind then threw the lower portion of the airship across the hill. Aluminium parts, yards of balloon cloth, and steel rods lay in a tangled mass.

The catastrophe of Weiburg is the fourth sustained by dirigible airships. The first was that of the French dirigible "La Patrie," which during a trial at Verdun on the 26th of November, 1907, had to land in the vicinity of Bousses. That morning, the wind changed to a howling hurricane. The soldiers who were in charge of the airship were compelled to release the rope in order not to be carried away. In a few minutes the "La Patrie" had vanished, and was never seen again.

The next great catastrophe destroyed the "Zeppelin IV," while Count Zeppelin was on his famous 24-hour

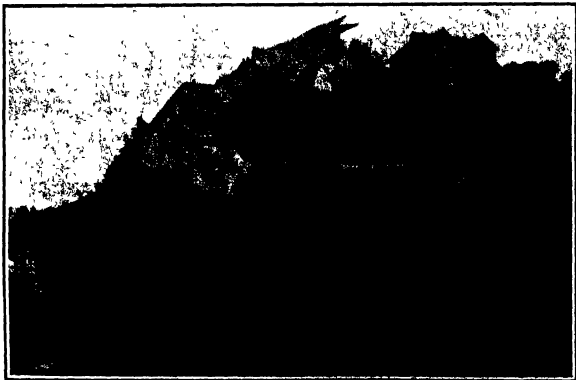
record trip of the 4th and 5th of August, 1908. On the return journey about ten kilometers from Stuttgart, Count Zeppelin was compelled to alight at Reichen to make repairs. Even before it was possible to cure the defects in the motor, which had caused him to come down, the airship was destroyed. To this day the actual cause has not been discovered. The "Zeppelin" caught fire and was burned up in a few minutes.

The next catastrophe affected the French dirigible "Bénaïm." The destruction of the "La Patrie" and the "Bénaïm" (1908 and 1909).



PHOTOGRAPH OF HALLEY'S COMET TAKEN BY DR. R. R. SANFORD ON MAY 4, 1910

is the twentieth century, and the days of superstition are supposed to have passed. Reports from China state that the comet was used as an omen to inflame rioters in disaffected districts. To be sure, the authorities tried to counteract these attempts by exhibiting pictures of the comet with an account of its previous



By courtesy of L'Illustration.

THE WRECK OF THE ZEPPELIN AIR SHIP AT WEIBURG.

# THE THORNE-BAKER TELE-PHOTOGRAPHIC APPARATUS

AN INSTRUMENT FOR TRANSMITTING PICTURES WITH AND WITHOUT WIRES.

On the evening of May 11th, Mr. T. Thorne-Baker delivered a lecture before the New York Electrical Society, in which he explained a new telephotographic apparatus, of his invention. The apparatus is to be experimentally tried out in transmitting newspaper pictures between New York and Boston. It has been used by the Daily Mirror of London, between Paris and London, and Manchester and London since July, 1909. With some modification, it can be adapted to the wireless transmission of pictures.

Mr. Thorne-Baker's apparatus employs no selenium cells and prints the records electro-chemically. A print is made from a photographic negative in sensitized film on lead foil. The print is made in the usual way, and the parts not acted upon by light are washed away, as in the gelatine process of photography. This impression is wrapped around a drum somewhat similar to the drum of an Edison photograph. The receiver consists of a similar revolving metal drum, over which a platinum stylus traces a bell line on a paper impregnated with some colorless electrolyte, the nature of which is not revealed. Whenever the transmitter of the stylus touches a clear part of the metal foil, current flows to the receiver, and a black or brown dot or mark appears on the chemical paper. This accompanying diagram illustrates the general arrangement of the apparatus.

The lead foil picture is broken up into thin and thick lines with spaces intervening. The stylus touches the thin base or the fat big lines, and the time of contact depends upon the width of the line. Hence the width of the lines determines the periods of the line currents.

The apparatus is used over a telephone line, the circuit being closed by the two styles  $B_1$  and  $B_2$ , with two batteries  $B_1$  and  $B_2$ , and the split resistance  $W$ , of 1,000 ohms, in shunt. The variable condenser  $C$  is shunted across the variable contacts of the resistance, and the current is varied out the resistive charges are regulated with the aid of the resistances  $W_1$  and  $W_2$ . These line currents flow through the chemical paper on the drum, but the pole of battery  $B_1$  connected with the line is of opposite sign to that of the line unit connected with it. When the leakage on the line is great and evenly distributed, less reverse current is required from the battery (a device employed to wipe out residual currents from the line in the way frequently made use of in duplex telegraphy). By increasing the voltage of the reverse batteries  $B_1$  and  $B_2$ , considerably greater contrast can be obtained in the pictures. The finer the halftone screen employed in splitting the halftone into thin lines, the higher must be the voltage.

In all telephotographic apparatus the problem of synchronism is one that has always bothered the inventor. The best arrangement is that of Korn whose system has been adopted by most recent designers, as well as by Mr. Baker. The motors, driven through storage batteries at about 3,000 revs. per minute, are geared down for the drums to 30 revolutions. The speed of each motor is regulated by resistance in series to the field, and the speeds are observed with the aid of vibrating reed frequency meters. A set of tuned steel tongues is fixed in front of a magnet which is fed with alternating currents from slip rings on the motor. Each tongue has a different period of vibration, and when the alterations in magnetization correspond with the period of one tongue, that tongue will vibrate. The receiving drum is driven somewhat more quickly than the transmitting drum, and, therefore, completes its revolution somewhat before the transmitter. It is then stopped by a steel check. When the transmitting drum has completed its turn, a foot contact comes into play; a reverse current is sent to the receiver, which flows into a relay actuating the electro-magnet by which the check is removed. Thus, whatever line may be used, is limited to one

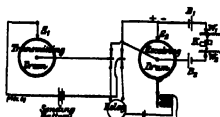


Fig. 1.—General arrangement of the apparatus.

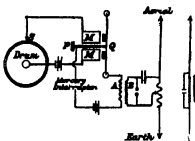


Fig. 2.—Apparatus for transmitting pictures wirelessly.

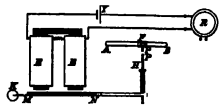


Fig. 3.—Relay employed in the wireless apparatus.

drum, and the drums are always re-started in union. One advantage of Mr. Baker's system is to be found in the fact that the entire operation of transmitting and receiving occurs in full view. It is not necessary to develop a picture before discovering whether any-

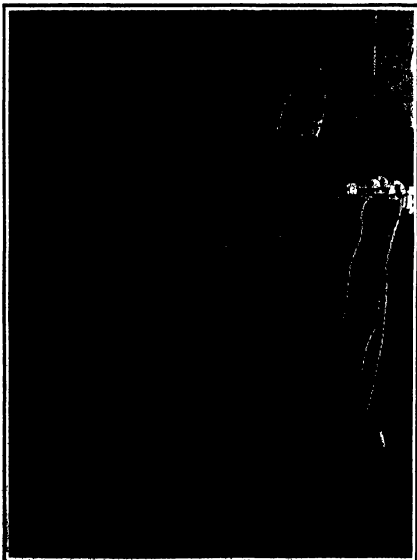
thing is wrong with the apparatus. Furthermore, the transmitting cylinder can be used as a revolving cylinder, if necessary.

The ordinary two-station instruments fit into two boxes of moderate size. A portable apparatus, however, has been devised by Mr. Baker, which he claims can be carried from place to place by an operator, so that pictures can be prepared in the field and telegraphed on. Thus plans, positions of troops and of ships can easily be transmitted.

Perhaps that feature of Mr. Baker's researches which will interest the readers of the journal most is the adaptation of his apparatus to the transmission of pictures by wireless telegraphy. The principles may thus be explained: Concise a small inductance lamp, coupled with the local side of a relay and battery the relay being actuated by means of a coherer. When a Morse key, closing the primary of an induction coil, is depressed the lamp glows until the coherer is tapped. The tape can be controlled by the lines to a photograph or sketch and the light of the lamp can be concentrated on a revolving photographic film. Mr. Baker applies the principle in the manner shown in Fig. 2. A line picture is attached to the drum of the transmitter, and the intermittent current ordinarily passed into the telephone line flows into the electromagnet end. The stylus  $S$  strikes the diaphragm  $D$  and brings the platinum contact  $PQ$  together. When they are in contact the primary of the transformer is closed, and the spark gap of the secondary, inductively coupled with the coil and the earth, sends out oscillations. Hence the length of the signals and their distance apart are regulated by the lines of which the photograph or drawing to be transmitted is composed.

When working with currents of 110 volts, arcing must be prevented. This is done with the aid of a mercury interrupter. The rectifying apparatus is simple and for a short distance the use of a coherer (a monograph of peculiar character). Whenever the oscillation passes the antenna the coherer becomes conductive and a relay is actuated which starts a vibrating hammer. In a short distance the relay sends only one for each signal the arrangement shown in Fig. 3 is employed. The relay it actuates the electromagnet  $B$ , which attracts the armature  $M$ . This motion brings the resilient hammer  $H$  provided with the platinum contact  $P$  against the contact pin fixed to the collar  $F$  of the coherer  $AB$ . Thus the local circuit is closed, and a black mark appears on the chemical paper. Successive marks can be obtained at intervals of 0.017 second. Up to the present this device has been successfully used only for line drawings. The apparatus however might be used for the transmission of sketches and plans. Mr. Baker suggests that military plans could be done in silhouette ink on a slip of metallic foil placed upon a portable machine coupled to a military wireless set, and communications could thus be exchanged. What is more such a communication cannot be tapped. Even if the enemy were in possession of an exactly similar instrument of the same dimensions and wire thread the picture received will be quite confused if the rate of running is altered by five or ten per cent, according to pre-arranged signals.

A special form of Finckh's galvanometer is employed by Mr. Baker for working the relay which galvanometer has a very intense magnetic field. Instead of the usual silver wire a silver quartz fiber one twelve hundredths of an inch in thickness is employed. This galvanometer is combined with the valve receiver for detecting wireless oscillations recently invented by Prof. Fleming. When the rectified currents with ordinary radio-telegraphy cause the telephone to sound, are sent through the silver quartz fiber the string is shifted. The shadow of the string lies over a fine slit, which is thus opened by the oscillations. In order to be able to use



MR. THORNE-BAKER AND HIS TELEPHOTOGRAPHIC APPARATUS.

a wide sail. Mr. Ranger Shipherd has fitted the apparatus with a fine shifter, and in that case the receiver can be modified. The beam of light is then directed through the tanned poles of the electro-magnet, and a pair of narrow compensated selenium cells is placed behind the slit, a positive lens being interposed. Any dot received white the fiber laterally, light falls on the selenium cells, and their reduced resistance allows a battery to actuate a relay which throws the telephographic receiver into circuit.

#### HOW THE "FLORIDA" WAS LAUNCHED

The launching of the "Florida," which took place strictly according to schedule, at the Brooklyn navy yard on the morning of May 12th, was an unusually brilliant function. In its technical aspects the launch was particularly successful, and we offer our congratulations to the naval constructors who were directly responsible. The ship was now tied up at the navy yard dock, where she will receive her side armor, which is already assembled at the yard, and her turret which are also about ready for placing.

A most interesting feature of the day was a dinner in celebration of the event, given by the employees of the yard who built the ship. This event at which some 1,200 were present, included among the speakers Vice President Sherman, Governor Gilchrist of Florida, Assistant Secretary Winthrop of the navy, Admiral Leutze, the commandant of the navy yard, Naval Constructor Baxter, and others. It was noteworthy that the strong personal interest taken by the whole force of men who worked upon the "Florida" in the success of the ship. To the Editor, who was present as a guest, the genuine enthusiasm reigned among the men whenever any reference was made to the ship, the yard, and its officers seemed to be a strong reinforcement of the policy of having at all times a battlement under construction at the New York yard.

In response to several inquiries as to just how a battleship is launched, we have prepared the accompanying sketches showing a portion of the launching ways near the bow. The permanent ways consist of rows of piling driven to a solid bearing upon which are laid sliding ways, square timbers, or "raps," running transversely upon these are laid series of heavy, longitudinal square timbers in three parallel lines, one immediately beneath the keel, and one on each side

of the ship between the keel and the bilges. During construction the weight is carried upon the keel blocks and upon hundreds of shoring timbers. When the ship is ready for launching and a few minutes before the actual launch the weight of the ship is transferred from the central keel blocks and the shoring timbers to the two parallel lines of launching ways. Each permanent way is built up of heavy square timbers, presents a sliding surface, and extends the whole length of the ship and down a considerable distance into the water. The permanent ways are fastened firmly down to the cross ways and piling below. The launching ways which are also four feet in width, are attached to the hull of the ship, and move with it down into the water between the under surface of the launching ways and the upper surface of the permanent ways is a thick coating of grease, oil, and other lubricating substances. The launching ways have to be molded to the form of the ship for which they carry a cradle, and our drawing shows part of the cradle near the bow, which is known as the forward "poppets." The poppets consist of six sets of 14-inch by 14-inch timbers in groups of half a dozen. At their upper ends and at their lower ends they rest upon what are known as the "crushing timbers" long lines of parallel timbers four feet wide, the bottom ones of which form the sliding surface of the launching ways. The aforementioned angle iron are riveted to steel straps from a half inch to three-quarters of an inch thick and 48 inches wide which extend down below the keel and are up to stiffen brackles on the other side of the ship. The space between the straps and the hull is filled in

with four-inch white pine timbers, which form the bed in which the bow of the vessel rests. To assist in tying the whole cradle together, heavy wire ropes run beneath the bow and are carried around heavy oak timbers, placed on the outside of the poppets. Further support is given by 1½ inch rods, which are drawn up snugly by nuts on the outside of the poppets.

The crushing timbers are provided throughout their entire length with a series of oak wedge interposed between them and the launching ways below. About half an hour before the launch, hundreds of workmen range themselves up and down the ways, and by means of heavy sledges drive these wedge home, forcing the launching cradle into closer contact with the ship, and eventually lifting it sufficiently to clear it from the keel blocks, thus transferring the load entirely to the launching ways.

This brings us to the consideration of the interesting method by which the ship is held in place, and prevented from starting off down its well-graded "hog-runs" until the exact moment when the launching is performed and the order is given to let go. The locking and starting gear are as follows:

The hardwood launching ways are extended forward and strongly bolted down to the ground on permanent ways. After the wedges have been driven home, and the ship is resting on the inclined and well-graded surface it is prevented from moving solely by three bolted connections at the rear of the ship. At the word of command, carpenters armed with cross-cut saws commence to saw through these timbers, and as the cut is made, a point is soon reached where the unusual strength of the remain-

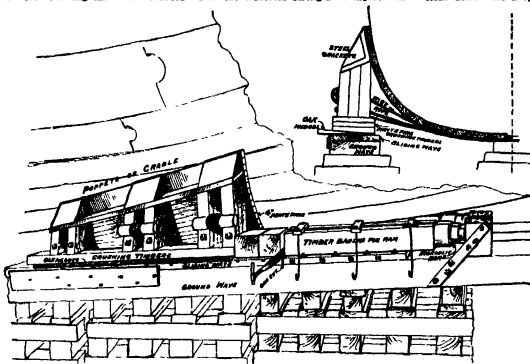
of appeals undoubtedly impinge an unnecessary amount of delay and expense. Thence upon an over-estimated Commissioner the impossible task of giving to each case the amount of personal attention proper to its disposal, as demanded by law, and the business of Examiners-in-Chief, as at present constituted, one of three members, and no provision is made under the present law to supply a temporary vacancy caused by absence, or by death, or by the result that the absence of one member sometimes results in an unevenly divided Board, and in the consequent necessity for a rehearing. The absence of two members causes an entire suspension of business. The enactment of Mr. Currier's bill into a law would provide an appellate Board, say three members, which would constitute a quorum, the prosecution of all applications on appeal would be expedited, and the elimination of one appeal would mean the savings of the inventors of one legal fee, attorneys' fees and incidental expenses. Lastly, one appeal in the Patent Office instead of two would give greater stability to the decisions of the office, lawyers, and would also obviate any want of agreement that has at times existed in the past between the decisions of the Commissioner of Patents and the Assistant Commissioner.

The law in reality constitutes a serious barrier. It was submitted by him to the Secretary of the Interior, who made a careful study of it and transmitted it for the consideration of Congress. The patent-patrons, as a whole, are in favor of the bill. The value of the measure will be appreciated when we consider the manner in which the Patent Office does its work. Each of the forty-two examining divisions deals with a special class of inventions.

Board of Examiners-in-Chief, consisting of three men at present, must decide upon inventions from all of these forty-two divisions, covering the entire range of mechanical arts, chemistry, electricity, and the like. The members of the Board are men who are experts in all of these widely diverging fields of activity. They must devote themselves upon all these classes of inventions as they come before them. It is supposed to have a special knowledge of all the legal points which are involved in the appeals on mechanical questions. They must study up and inform themselves so as to be able to explain the technical point at issue. Obviously, in order that these men may keep up with the

times, it is necessary for them to study and read much. At present there are located in the room beginning at one o'clock. There are on the docket seven or eight *ex parte* cases involving the patentability of an invention, or one to two interference cases involving the conflict of two inventions. Then on both sides, the application of the law, and frequently, the right of the applicant to make the claims. Hence, only the forenoon is left for study and what reading is necessary. The number of decisions. It is small wonder that the Examiners-in-Chief find it almost impossible to keep up with the work. Driven to it, they can make some sort of a decision, but to do so properly the invention must be studied thoroughly, and in interference cases the testimony must all be read, even though it may involve thousands of pages. When only three men on the Board, the time has come when they are unable to do something in the way of relief, so that prompt and correct decisions may be handed down. Just now the Board is several months behind in its work. The result is that to get an appeal through the Board of Examiners probably requires three to four months' time. The bill in question saves so much time in getting a case through the Patent Office, it probably provides six men to do the work that there are now trying to do without any additional cost.

At the present time, the same work is done over and over in the office, as very good judges of the theory of the present course of invention. It was under the decision of the present Board of Examiners-in-Chief, there will be an appeal to the Commissioner in person. It is reasonable to expect that the Patent law, as proposed, will be passed.



The upper and of sliding ways is bolted to the ground ways. To free the ship, the sliding ways are sawn through, when a jacks from the hydraulic press (if necessary) can be used.

#### LAUNCHING WAYS AND CRADLE OF "FLORIDA" NEAR THE BOW

launching timber fails to hold the vessel. It parts with a loud report, and almost invariably the ship starts slowly at first, and then more rapidly, for the water. Occasionally a vessel will stick and must be given a start. For this purpose, four heavy ramming tugs, here are held in position, abutting against the end of the launching ways, with hydraulic jacks interposed between them, and heavy timber abutments. Should the ship "hang," a brief operation of the jacks is generally sufficient to start her.

#### Reducing the Number of Appeals in the Patent Office

Mr. Frank D. Currier of New Hampshire introduced on January 21st, 1910, a bill the principal purpose of which is to expedite the granting of patents in the Patent Office by eliminating one appeal in the office. In his last annual report the Commissioner of Patents recommended such legislation and advocated a measure which would combine the Commissioner, the First Assistant Commissioner, the Assistant Commissioner, and the Examiners-in-Chief into a single appellate tribunal, say three of whom shall constitute a quorum, to which all appeals shall lie, whether from the Primary Examiner, or from the Examiner in Interference, and from which appeals would lie to the Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia.

Under the present patent law in *ex parte* cases an appeal lies from the Primary Examiner to the Board of Examiners-in-Chief, then to the Commissioner of Patents, and from his decision to the Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia. In interference cases the course of appeal from the decision of the Examiner of Interference is the same. This course

## Correspondence.

## WEIGHT DISTRIBUTION IN AEROPLANE.

To the Editor of the Scientific American.

In the issue of April 30th, Mr. Godfrey assumes that the center of suspension and center of thrust are coincident, center of gravity low, and center of resistance to the lateral motion in vertical roller bearing.

In an aeroplane with perfect stability the center of gravity should be low, the center of thrust below the supporting plane yet in the center of resistance to forward motion, and the vertical roller below the center of suspension yet at the center of resistance to lateral motion. In my monoplane the operator by shifting his weight slightly can raise the inner wing in making the turn.

MORSE FRANKLIN.

Grand Junction, Colo.

## WEED-CUTTING MONITOR.

To the Editor of the Scientific American.

I have been a constant reader of the *Scientific American* for, I think more than thirty years—back as far as I can remember, anyway. In the issue which I received Saturday, I noticed an illustration of a weed-cutting boat and a description sent by your Paris correspondent. While I do not know that there is a specific statement in the article that it is a new scheme, certainly one can only gain that inference from the reading.

While I do not remember to have seen a weed-cutting boat exactly similar to that one, they have been used in this country by many of the ice companies for many years. The Consumers' Company of this city, of which I was vice-president and general manager for a good many years, something like ten years ago built a boat at their own works for this purpose and while owing to the fact that gasoline engines were not then so universally used as at present steam power was used for propulsion and for the operation of the high cutting knives, yet its purpose was the same and it accomplished the same end and in my judgment was in some respects better than this French device. As I remember it, we merely built a flatboat about ten feet wide and forty feet long. We mounted the wheel at the stern, after the manner of Mississippi River steamboats, instead of at the bow as in the French one, and we placed the cutting knives at the bow. They were about the same type as those used on mowing machines and were operated by the same engine that propelled the boat. We mowed a small up-and-down river and a singlerider vertical roller for power, transmitting the power to the stern wheel by chains and to the cutting knives by bevel gears and shafting. Right at the front end of the boat (convenient to the boat) was a clutch for throwing the cutting knives in and out of gear. The knives were raised and lowered by a gear controlled by the same person. This boat at times was run by one individual. Of course, it was better to have two—or as engineer and the other as pilot. It was arranged to cut to a depth, I think, of four feet.

I know of several boats of this same character used by various ice companies and I think in one respect they are very much better than the French boat as the cutting knives are in front, and the pilot knows just what he is doing all the time and of course, he can run the boat very much nearer the shore and cut the weeds out in very much shallower water. Then again, the French boat runs over the tops of the rushes, pushing them down possibly so that the weed cutting knives would not cut them as they would in the Chicago, Ill.

JOHN BRYAN.

## Death of Prof. Angstrom.

The well-known Swedish physicist, Knut Angstrom, is dead. To the general public his passing will mean little, because his investigations were not of the character that attracted public attention. To the scientific world, however, his death means a loss. Angstrom has been deprived of one of its ablest investigators.

Prof. Angstrom was the second generation of a family distinguished by scientific research. His father, John, achieved fame by reason of his all-sided study of the solar spectrum. His son, Knut, was born in 1857. He studied at the University of Uppsala, where, after his graduation, he occupied a professorial chair at the time of his death.

Angstrom's first researches were made in the field of spectroscopy. By means of the spectrometer he studied the phenomena of absorption in the infrared spectrum, notably for carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide, water vapor and ozone. These investigations gave rise to an interesting controversy with Arrhenius. Water vapor, carbon dioxide and ozone have a marked influence on the temperature of our globe in effect, they partially hamper the radiation of the sun into interstellar space and in this manner maintain the surface of our planet at a temperature compatible with the conditions of life. With these fields as a basis, Arrhenius built up an ingenious

theory to account for the glacial period. He supposed that the quantity of carbon dioxide contained in our atmosphere has been almost entirely exhausted. Arrhenius proved that Arrhenius' reasoning was valid only for carbon dioxide of almost infinite tenacity and that the possible variations of the tenacity of carbon dioxide in the air could not have had any influence on the temperature of the earth.

Angstrom's name will be forever linked with the study of solar radiation. An instrument which he invented for the measurement of solar radiation is well known and the Angstrom pyrheliometer is now widely used in observatories.

## The Great Earthquake.

The government dam across the Salt River at Roosevelt, Arizona is nearing completion after about six years of active work. The dam is excellently described and illustrated in the opening article of the current *Scientific American* No. 1794 by Edmund G. Kinyon. In an article entitled "New Methods of Dam Construction" the forthcoming expeditions of Lieut. William P. H. and Capt. Scott are described in detail as well as other expeditions. The current problems of most interest to those engaged in the branches of science associated with marine construction are usually brought into view. The article is written by the Chief of the Institution of Naval Architects. In the present year this has been particularly the case. A summary of the Institution's proceedings is presented. The inauguration of the Oceanographic Museum at Monaco took place on March 28th in the presence of representatives of the governments of France, Germany, Italy, Spain and Portugal, and a great gathering of men of science of all nations who were invited by the Prince of Monaco. The museum is made the subject of an interesting illustrated article. Dr. E. R. Barnard of New York Observatory has made a special study of the aurora.

In the current *Scientific American* the results of his observations between 1902 and 1909 are presented (to May 19th, at 9 P. M. eastern standard time). Halley's comet will pass directly between the sun and the earth and its tail will sweep over and envelop the earth. In this connection it is interesting to note that a miracle book of the sixteenth century mentions the passage of a very small comet between the sun and the earth, and a phenomenon apparently connected therewith. The circumstances of the passage, as given in the work are published. Perhaps the biggest comet of the nineteenth century, the comet of 1861, which appeared in 1858. At the time Charles Dickens was Editor of Household Words. In the pages of which magazine there appeared an interesting article on the appearance of the comet. The article is a very good attempt to present the phenomenon in a popular way and also curious in the light of our more advanced scientific knowledge. Visible Meteoric Comets, and Comets. Is the title of a book in which the most recent theory of matter is discussed.

## A Stabilizer for Aeroplanes.

Hugonard has designed an automatic device for steadying the flight of an aeroplane, in which use is made of the invariability of the axis of rotation of a gyroscope. For stabilizing an aeroplane, however, it is not necessary to have a gyroscope of great mass, acting directly upon the axis of the aeroplane.

A small gyroscope, weighing only a few pounds suffices to establish electric contacts in the frame which contains it. By means of these contacts, currents are sent through motors which operate the steering organs of the aeroplane. Two motors are required for this purpose, but they may be very small and light because they act only on the steering organs. Mr. Hugonard has not yet had an opportunity to apply his invention to a real aeroplane, but he has submitted to the French Ministry of War a model of an aeroplane with three feet long, controlled by a small gyroscope, which contains a gyrostatic stabilizer. When the system is in motion, it will vary the steering organs, whose function it is to restore the axis to its original position, in as once automatically as it into motion.

## What the Great People Say for Patents.

A recent report of the General Electric Company covering the period of the eleven months ending December 31st, 1909, contains some remarkable figures. During the year 1909, the company received 1,141 patents and patented litigation the sum of \$394,207, which sum is not counted as an asset but is charged over to profit and loss. All the company's valuable patents are in electric and power lines, and in the manufacture of electrical machinery and apparatus. The company's balance sheet at a nominal valuation is one dollar.

Mr. Richard B. H. inventor who did much to improve machinery of various kinds, died recently at Richmond Hill, Long Island, at the ripe age of 95 years. He patented the Cutler switch and the first electric ladder and the first "Fire-Fire" fire extinguisher. He also invented the first hydraulic water pressure system for sky scrapers and improvements in sewing machines are also to be credited to him.

these claims which are appealed to him. He has to have the help of his Assistant Commissioner, and he also has to have the help of his clerks. The situation is, therefore, this: Instead of getting the decision of the Board of Examiners-in-Chief, the only chance the Board has of getting together and forming its opinion on a matter is also having the arguments which are made by the attorneys. That then tries to come to some conclusion at that time. If it does not, then the work is to be divided among the members of the Board. The situation is to prepare his share of the case, and then explain his decision after it is rendered to the other members of the Board, whereupon they decide whether they will support or dissent. Obviously, the decision does not exactly represent the views of all the members of the Board. Sometimes they have so much work to do that they have to pass it over and sign it anyway.

For these reasons, it would seem that the Currier bill is worth amending to a law.

## A PERENNIAL OIL GUINER.

BY CHARLES CARROLL WERRY.

The largest oil gusher in the history of California, and perhaps the most profitable in the world's history, is the Laharrie in the Maricao oil field, forty miles southeast of Bakersfield, Cal. The gusher started to spout on Tuesday morning, March 19th, and, more for a period of eight hours than it "budded up" on Monday, it has since then "laid forth" its own record like a volcano of oil, the well flowed continuously up to March 31st, averaging a flow of 18,000 barrels of oil of 18 gravity (measured each 24 hours, as measured in the runoff from the pump hole through a ditch in which the oil runs to a rapidly built pipeline. Since that date the flow has continued at the rate of from 15,000 to 16,000 gallons, and up to May 31st it had delivered about 2,000,000 barrels of oil.

The marvel of the gusher has been its sustained productivity. During the two weeks following March 31st, 1910, more than one-half million barrels of high grade crude petroleum had been collected from the well. The stream rises intermittently from 170 to 190 feet above the top of the Maricao oil field, where the crown or top was carried away by the stream of oil, was 84 feet in height. The oil sands were struck at 3300 feet, at which point a tremendous gas pressure was encountered in the well, which was then and only then at seeing small rocks hurled hundreds of feet in the air through the tight casing burst. After the oil sands were struck, the well "drilled itself" to a greater depth, and the well promises to keep spouting for many months to come.

The well can be heard roaring for more than a mile. Spray from the gusher has been carried a distance of two and a half miles. The well is a small one, and several jack rabbits killed by the flow were brought by small boys into Maricao. All efforts to "cap" the gusher have proved unavailing, the force of the oil flow carried away the crown or top of the derrick and fifteen feet of its uppermost structure, and the tremendous flow created a huge lake of oil extending for hundreds of feet on every side of the derrick.

From a mossy viewpoint the gusher is said to be the most valuable in the world's history, far exceeding the famous Texas gusher in the Beaumont field, which caught fire and which has since been shut in, and the gusher in the Maricao oil field, which was shut in, and the gusher in the Maricao oil field, which was shut in, and the gusher in the Maricao oil field, which was shut in.

To control the oil from the gusher was in itself no slight achievement. Shortly after the gusher was struck, the derrick, three pumps with a combined capacity of 85,000 barrels daily, were started working at top speed, pumping oil out of the pump-hole, and the oil so recovered was the first oil to be taken from the tanks built by the independent producers of California.

The big well, which is one of the seven gushers "brought in" in the Maricao and Midway-Maricao oil fields of California within the past month, is due to the presidency of a step's man. A discouraged board of directors, that had lately the gusher was struck, decided to quit drilling. The order was given that the superintendent conveniently forgot. He drilled 47 feet more against plan of dismissal, and he hit entered the oil main and Midway-Maricao oil fields.

To date all efforts to cap the well have proved unavailing, and the oil is now running headward both on the inside and the outside of the steel casing. It is an interesting fact that lately the gravity of the oil has been from 18° Beaumé to 20°. This has been taken to indicate that the oil is now being drawn from a lower source, "oil."



# THE MANUFACTURE OF TWINE

BY DAY ALLEN WILLEY

What is generally known as hemp twine, used in such enormous quantities in the United States, is manufactured from two varieties of fiber known as Manila and Sisal. Needless to say the first named comes from the Philippine Islands forming one of the principal products of this possession of the United States while the Sisal is secured principally from Yucatan the State of Yucatan contributing the largest supply. An idea of the extent of Manila hemp manufactured can be gained by the fact that each year no less than 125,000 tons are shipped from the city of Manila most of it coming to the United States.

The fiber from the Philippines is obtained from a

verted into fiber. This is done by the usual method of decortication, the material is fed into the receiving hoppers of the mill by means of an endless conveyor, the leaves being laid upon the surface of the conveyor side by side. By means of toothed wheels which are on the mill the leaves are cut into shreds. In this state the material is passed through mechanical cleaners which remove all of the pulp. Next the fiber passes out of the decorticator and is carried to yards adjacent to the mill, where it is hung upon lines and dried by exposure to the heat of the sun. This process completed, it is pressed into bales of convenient size, and is then ready for shipment to the United States. As already stated, the preparation of Manila fiber is done almost entirely by hand, and before being exported it is also dried in the sun, the natives using long poles, however, instead of rope or wire as at the Mexican plants.

The manufacture of both the Manila and Sisal fiber into the

movable racks or the floor. This is the first process in preparing the hemp for use, it has now become for spinning, but before being conveyed to this apparatus, it goes through what is called the finishing machine. This combines in part the drawing and twisting of the cotton mill, so that when the material emerges from it, the strand has been considerably reduced in size and is slightly twisted, enabling it to be coiled in cans, from which it is fed to the spinning jennies. While the spinning machine is of course designed for treating this fiber especially, it is as automatic in its operation as the modern selfacting mechanism, and no more human labor is required to convert the already into finished product than is required in the manufacture of yarn and thread from the ordinary cotton.

The twine spinning machine includes drawing rolls for lengthening the fiber, it is also wound on a large spool or bobbin, the latter being taken to the baling machine as soon as it is filled with the twine. The baling machines are also automatic in their operation, not only winding the twine in connection with binders and other agricultural machinery, the bails being packed into cases holding ten each. At the McCormick plant, which is illustrated in the accompanying engravings, several grades of hemp twine are produced, one of which includes the mixture of Mexican and Manila fiber, as this is found to be very durable. To show the difference in the weight of the material it may be said that a pound of such twine contains 600 feet. The twine made entirely from Manila is slightly finer and averages 650 feet to the pound, while the Sisal is the coarsest, averaging 600 feet to the pound.

Industrious the Farmers by Hand.

California sees a way to solve the food problem by educating the farmers.

Belle believes that the farmer is never too old to learn.



Type of spindle used for converting hemp into twine

species of the banana family, which attains a height of fifteen or twenty feet. The stems of the separate leaves grow in a close cluster, forming what appears to be a solid tree trunk, to the height of ten or twelve feet, where they separate and branch out like the limbs of an ordinary tree.

The natives cut these stalks off near the ground, removing the leaves from the top of the stalk, then separating the stems and removing the pulp from the fiber by repeatedly drawing it across the edge of a dull blade pressed on a block of wood. This primitive method of cleaning the Manila fiber has not as yet given place to modern machinery. The average day's work of a native is eighteen pounds of cleaned fiber. This work of growing and cleaning the fiber is now confined to the mountainous districts. After the fiber has been dried it is packed in convenient sized bundles and brought down to the coast villages where it is purchased by exporters, who sort the fiber and press it by machinery into bales convenient for shipping. These bales are protected by matting woven or plaited from rushes by the natives, and are secured by rattan bands.

The five-year plant furnishes the Sisal fiber which is brought to this country. The plant bears a remarkable resemblance to the well-known century plant and is frequently mistaken for the latter on account of its appearance. As it forms one of the principal products of Yucatan the Sisal plant is cultivated on large plantations, principally by Indian labor. The young plants on these plantations are set out in rows about two feet apart. About the fifth or sixth year the plant is sufficiently matured, so that the under and larger leaves are cut, and the pulp removed by decortication, leaving the fibers to dry in the sun, they are then baled ready for market. The plant continues to grow, and produces about a dozen mature leaves each year. At the end of a period ranging from fifteen to twenty years the plant dies, and is replaced by a young one.

The method of gathering the Sisal and shipping it to market is much more systematic than the process employed in the Philippines, for nearly all of the Sisal plantations have runways extending through the Henequen fields, so that as fast as this curious harvest is gathered it can be loaded directly on cars and drawn by mules to the factory, where it is con-

verted into commerce is performed by practically the same process. The interior of the modern twine factory is somewhat similar in appearance to that of a modern cotton mill, with the exception that some of the machinery utilized in the latter is missing. This is due to the fact that less care is required in the preparation of the fiber for spinning, since its appearance usually does not influence the value of the finished product. As is well known, the preparatory machinery in a cotton mill is by far the most elaborate apparatus installed. It includes the opening and scutching machine, by which the material is cleaned from dirt and other foreign particles. As the fiber is not a mass of fine hairs raw cotton, this mechanism is not required, nor is it necessary to form it into bales preparatory to carding. In the modern twine mill, however, the fiber is passed through mechanism which is somewhat similar to the carding engine and performs the same duties, disintegrating the fiber by means of revolving cylinders provided with cards which are suitable for treating such coarse material. When carried the fiber is drawn into a cord, through which it passes between calender rollers and emerges from the machine in a coarse strand. It is then coiled in large heaps either upon



Machines for baling the twine.



Bales of twine ready for shipment

## THE MANUFACTURE OF TWINE.

She also believes in teaching the young to be farmers.

Accordingly, the State maintains a college of agriculture, a university farm, polytechnic school, United States experiment station, etc.

Now she proposes to introduce the study of agriculture into the public schools of the State.

A substantial beginning in this line has already been made in the establishment of the study in the high schools, later on it will find a place in the primary and grammar schools.

Then California has its farmers club, granges, and farmers' unions scattered all over the State, and these organizations exercise a large influence upon the educational thought of the day.

Every year some hundred or so farm institutes are held in various parts of the State and mean annually between 25,000 and 35,000 farmers.

California has the best organized horticultural com-

mission in the world, comprising a central office and State laboratory at Sacramento and a quarantine department in San Francisco.

Each county covering a horticultural section also has its own local commission, inspectors, etc., while the fruit growers hold two State conventions annually.

These all wield a strong educational influence and add largely to the sum of farm knowledge in the State.

But the latest and most striking feature of California's campaign of farm propaganda is the so-called "Agricultural and Horticultural Demonstration Train."

This train is the joint work of the California College of Agriculture and the Southern Pacific Company, the one supplying the exhibits and corps of lecturers and

This led to the organization of the "Agricultural and Horticultural Demonstration Train."

And it only needs a glance at California's industrial statistics to convince one of the truth of this charge of wasteful husbandry.

California, thirty years ago was one of the leading wheat-producing States of the Union. In the year 1879 its wheat output amounted to not less than 1,707,500 tons, in 1904 the annual product of wheat had dwindled to 465,025 tons, a shrinkage of more than seventy-five per cent.

California was formerly a great exporter of wheat and flour. In the year 1882 she exported not less than 1,130,051 tons of wheat and 918,594 barrels of flour. In 1904 her exports of wheat had dwindled to 54,381 tons and flour exports to 282,486 barrels. Today both the export of wheat and flour are nil and the State is compelled to import a million dollars' worth of wheat annually in order to keep her mills running, and her flour up to standard grade.

And all a result of poor farming, as is evidenced by the fall of the average annual yield per acre of wheat from forty to less than fifteen bushels.

lectural lecturers cover a wide field, including plant culture, plant diseases, and plant pests, viticulture, animal industry, dairying, seedling and soil treatment, etc.

Special stress, however, is laid upon the vital importance of restoring the lost fertility of depleted soils and the maintenance in their composition of that vital element known to agricultural science as humus, all of which has a direct bearing upon the increase in the production of food-stuffs sufficient to supply the demands of a constantly increasing population.

#### Fire Control in the National Forests.

Probably one of the best things in the line of an agreement has just been signed by the Secretary of Agriculture and several railroads whose lines run alongside of the national forests. Two of the largest and longest roads in the Northwest (the Great Northern and the Northern Pacific) have agreed to pass through some of the richest timber districts in the West and this agreement is of great benefit.

They have in view both the reduction to the lowest point of fire risk from the operation of the railroads and joint action by the Forest Service and the rail roads to fight all fires which may start along the lines. Both companies have agreed to clear and keep clear of inflammable material a strip of varying width, as conditions demand, up to 200 feet beyond the right of way, and to provide all locomotives with a do not burn oil, with suitable spark arresters and other standard equipment to prevent the dropping of fire. An effort will also be made by the companies to so operate their engines as not to cause fires.

In fighting fires the railroads and the Forest Service will co-operate closely. Notification will be made promptly to the Forest officers of all fires discovered by employees of the railroads. Telephone wires to make this possible will be put up.



Separating the course from the fine floor.

demonstrators, and the other a fully equipped railroad train comprising three exhibit cars, a lecture car, a sleeping car and diner, all absolutely free of cost to the State.

The work of the train is arranged in a series of annual tours, covering all the leading agricultural and horticultural sections of the State.

Each series consists of five separate tours, each tour covering from 500 to 1,000 miles, and from twenty to twenty-five stopping places. The work of the train begins in the late fall and ends in the late spring. It does not specialize like the demonstration train of the West but covers all the leading lines of agriculture and horticulture.

Its corps of lecturers contains some of the ablest members of the faculty of the College of Agriculture, and the president of the university, Benjamin Ide Wheeler, frequently joins the train in its course, and lends his aid to the work of general farm enlightenment.

The Southern Pacific Company very cordially admits its own interested motives in the premises, and frankly explains that it discovered a serious falling off in its local tonnage, and when the matter was investigated it was discovered that the shrinkage was found in the item of farm produce.

They consulted their local freight agents as to the underlying causes, and were told that the principal cause was an exhaustion of the soil.

This was hardly believable, and the company consulted the soil experts of the College of Agriculture who denied the theory of exhaustion, but explained that the soil had been depleted by a process of poor cultural methods.



Unloading out the hemp preparatory to shipment.

It is in this era of wasteful farming that California desires to put a stop to, and hence in augurs her campaign of agricultural education.

The "Agricultural and Horticultural Demonstration Train" is developing unlooked-for efficacy. It was originally intended for the enlightenment of the present generation of farmers, but its influence is being carried beyond that limit, it is being brought to bear upon the rising generations, and the young folks are fully as much in evidence at the lecture and demonstrations as the older ones.

At each stopping place for lectures the local schools of all grades are dismissed and the pupils allowed to attend, a privilege that is evidently appreciated by all. Thus comes the demonstration cars and lecture car, attend open-air lectures, lectures and discussions in neighboring school rooms, public halls, and opera houses, and are found in attendance whether the gathering be in the daytime or in the evening.

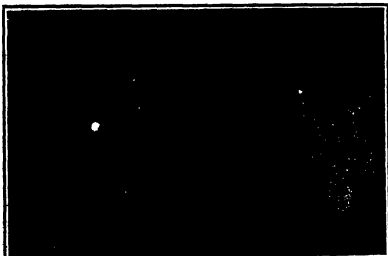
The subjects dealt with by the agricultural and hor-

#### Winding the material into canisters for spinning.

by the Forest Service using the companies' poles where this is possible. Warning whistles will also be sounded by locomotives on occasion.

Forces of fire fighters will be assembled on the outbreak of fire, and will be made up of Forest officers, railroad employees, and such temporary labor as can be gathered by either. The cost of fighting fires which start within 200 feet of the railroads will be borne by the companies and of all others by the Forest Service, unless it is shown in the first case that the railroads were not responsible or in the second case that they were responsible for the outbreak of the fire. It is the intention of the Forest Service to send its rights

(Continued on page 421)



Mesh hop; the raw material as it comes from the ship.



Preparing the hemp for spinning.

## DAMMING THE MISSISSIPPI

BY W. P. GREEN

Excited only by the monster dam across the historic Nile River, the greatest engineering feat in the history of the Middle West is under way on the Mississippi at Keokuk, Iowa, the point from which Col. James W. Smith started his river journey to the far West several years ago. A huge dam is being built across the Mississippi at the foot of the rapids which lie to the north of Keokuk, and the stored energy of the river is to be used in generating over 200,000 electrical horsepower. The power will be distributed throughout the Middle West, the first long-distance transmission line running to St. Louis 170 miles south of Keokuk where forty per cent of the power to be developed is now under contract. The bed of the river at this point affords an excellent rock foundation. The dam will be built of reinforced concrete, and over 500,000 barrels of cement, and 7,000 tons of steel will be required in the construction of this gigantic work.

The dam, including abutments, will be 4,500 feet

of 43 feet. On top of the spillway will be placed 118 steel flood gates, 30 feet wide and 11 feet high, supported by concrete piers. The piers are to be built integral with the dam, being carried down to bed-rock on the upstream side. They will support an arched bridge, from which the gates will be operated by electric hoists. Through the manipulation of these gates the water above the dam will be maintained at a constant level at all seasons.

Four-fifths of the dam, the 4,400-foot section, will extend in a straight line across the river, breasting the current of the broad river. The balance of the dam will be built approximately parallel to the shores and at right angles to the main dam. This portion, 1100 feet long, 123 feet wide and 135 feet high, will be occupied by the power house. The substructure, built of massive concrete, will contain the water passages and water-wheel chambers. Upon this will be the superstructure containing the electric generators, transformers and switchboards. There will be thirty

the power house, will be the revolving parts of the generators.

To keep floating ice and logs from entering the power house, an ice tender will be built upstream from the upper end of the power house, curving in toward the shore. This will be 3,500 feet long and built of concrete masonry.

The construction of the dam will entirely destroy the government canal, built to carry shipping around the rapids. This canal now contains three locks. In its place a single large lock will be built. There will thus be substituted for the canal a lake of deep water over a mile wide at the dam, and 40 miles long. The government has given permission to build the dam. Landowners on both sides of the river will be given a fair price for all land overflowed as the result of the creation of the reservoir.

The construction of this gigantic river project is under the direction of Hugh L. Cooper of New York city. The work of excavation is well under way on



This huge structure, over a mile in length, is being built across the Mississippi at Keokuk, Iowa. The dam, which is broadly similar to the American dam across the River Nile, is provided with 118 flood gates to control the height of the floods. A lake 40 miles long will be formed and ultimately 500,000 electric horse-power will be generated in the power house above at the left of the dam.

## THE HOVER DAM WHICH IS BEING BUILT ACROSS THE MISSISSIPPI

long, or seven-eighths of a mile. The spillway section will be 4,400 feet in length. The dam will rise 37 feet above the river bed, and the base has a width

power generating units each consisting of a vertical steel shaft, carrying on the lower part two turbines, or water wheels. On the upper part, on the floor of

the Illinois side of the river, the project will be pushed as fast as the material is delivered at the site.

**The Oceanographic Museum of Monaco.**  
The Oceanographic Museum of Monaco was formally opened on March 25th, 1910, by its founder, Prince Albert I of Monaco, in the presence of representatives of various foreign governments. The celebration included a pyrotechnic exhibition and an all-nighter banquet in the beautiful bay of Monaco, a gala performance at the opera and other festivities. The new museum, which is also a laboratory, is connected with the Oceanographic Institute of Paris and both institutions, with an endowment of four million francs (\$600,000) have been presented by Prince Albert to the French government in recognition of the hospitality which Paris and France accord to all workers in the field of thought. Prince Albert is president of the administrative council of the Institute, which includes among its members as President Loubet and the physicians Callotet and Bequaert. The directorship of the scientific work is confided to an international committee for it was Prince Albert's design to found an institute and a laboratory in which investigators of all nationalities could work together for the advancement of the new science of oceanography. The lecture courses of the Institute were inaugurated in 1903, at the Conservatoire des Arts et Métiers. The lectures have since been given in the old building of the Academy of Medicine and at the Sorbonne. The new building of the Oceanographic Institute will soon be completed, and the lectures will be given there after October next.

The Oceanographic Museum of Monaco, which has already received the popular name of the Palace of the Sea, is built on the flank of a steep cliff at the edge of the sea. On the water side the building is 256 feet high, while the height of the main facade on the land side, is 145 feet, the difference being due to the

slope of the cliff. The length of the building, parallel to the water front, is 140 feet. The cost of construction exceeded \$1,500,000. There are only four stories, and the rooms are very high, large, and well lighted. The two lower stories which are partly underground, contain the aquariums and laboratories, while the upper stories are devoted to the exhibition of soundings and other apparatus, and of the rich and varied collections of deep-sea fauna and flora which represent the result of a quarter century of exploration. Prince Albert has also placed a small steamer, the "Eider," at the disposal of the Museum.

Almost every year since 1885, the Prince of Monaco has made a scientific cruise in the Mediterranean, Atlantic or Arctic Ocean. The experience acquired with the "Hirondelle," a sailing yacht of 200 tons, and afterward with the "Princesse Alice I," an auxiliary three-masted schooner, 170 feet in length, was put to good use in the construction and equipment of the "Princesse Alice II," with which the later cruises have been conducted. This vessel has a steel hull, a length of 240 feet, a breadth of 34 feet, a displacement of 1,100 tons and a maximum speed of 13 knots. It contains the most improved apparatus for taking soundings and temperatures and collecting specimens of fauna, flora, sand, mud, etc., at very great depths. A great part of the apparatus was invented and constructed by the Prince and his assistants.

The cases of the Museum contain representatives of all known deep-sea fauna. Many of these specimens are interesting even to the non-scientific observer because of their strange forms, beautiful colors, and peculiar organs of sight and touch.

These oceanographic explorations and collections also possess great practical value. In addition to their scientific interest. Most edible fishes found upon the

plankton or mass of small animal organisms which are washed hither and thither by even feeble ocean currents.

The explorations have proved that the plankton moves in a manner dependent on the season and the locality. These migrations appear to be governed by complex laws, the knowledge of which, as it is gradually developed, will be of great value to the fisheries, especially to the steam fisheries, as the fish follow the plankton.

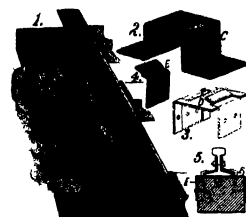
In commemoration of the inauguration of the Oceanographic Museum, the Prince of Monaco has caused a plaque to be struck in gold, silver and bronze. The six gold plaques were presented to the president of the French Republic, and the sovereigns of Germany, Italy, Spain, Portugal and Monaco. One hundred plaques in silver and twenty in bronze were distributed among the other invited guests.—Illustration

The Electrical World remarks that in a report submitted by the chief signal officer of the United States army to the Secretary of War, it is stated that there are now in the army service a total of 28 wireless telegraph stations, of which 18 are in the United States, 8 in Alaska, 5 in the Philippine Islands, 3 on artillery harbor tugs, and 7 in the signal transport service. The signal corps has purchased a Marconi 100,000-cycles alternator for wireless communication facilities. The availability of the United States, following the International Radiotelegraphic Convention, 1907, is recommended for the consideration of the United States Senate. The telegraph station at the United States Navy, at the Bureau of Oceanography, is now being erected at the Bureau of Oceanography, at the quarters of the signal corps of the army, in Pennsylvania Ave., Washington, at which communication will be the object of establishing the new communication system.



## IMPROVED RAIL CONNECTION.

To prevent the destructive hammering of the rails when depressed by the passage of a train, a new construction has recently been designed to furnish a more substantial support at the rail joints for them. It



## IMPROVED RAIL CONNECTION.

consists in providing timbers or ties running longitudinally under the rails at the joints. In addition to this, a number of very substantial metallic fastenings serve to clamp the rails tightly in position. It is usually the case that the joints of a railroad are arranged to come between and not on the ties and heavy flagstones are depended upon to support them. The construction here illustrated is intended to offer an improvement on such an arrangement of the joints. As shown in the accompanying engraving, the two ties A, between which the joint comes, are depressed, and on them is laid the longitudinal timber B. The latter is clamped down to the ties by means of a metal fastening C, which is shown in full in Fig. 3. This is substantially of U-form, and may be termed a "middle piece." It is preferably mortised into the timber to the depth of its thickness. The base flanges are secured to the ties by means of spikes. Each middle piece is cut out at the top to form a hook or lip that engages the outer side of the rail base and thus prevents outward movement or spreading of the rails. At the joint the rails are connected by the usual flanges and bolts and are secured firmly to the timber B by means of a metallic fastening D such as shown in Fig. 3 and a pair of fastenings E, such as shown in Fig. 4. Fig. 5 is a cross-sectional view of the rail joint, and shows how these fastenings are applied. The fastening D is approximately L-shaped, and passes under the base of the rails, being formed with a hooked portion, which engages the inner side of the rail base. Over this hook, one of the fastenings E is applied, while at the opposite side is another fastening E, the fastening D being cut away to receive it. Thus a very strong joint is provided, which should reduce the unpleasant hammering noise at the joints and also increase the safety of the railroad. The inventor is Mr. Henry Grasse of Alvin, Texas.

## FENCE POST ANCHOR.

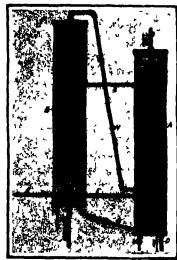
A patent has recently been granted on a novel method of supporting a fence post, so that it will stand securely stable. The construction will be especially useful for anchoring corner posts. The device is very simple and inexpensive and may be readily attached to any post. In our illustration, we show in Fig. 1 the construction applied to the ordinary fence



post, while in Fig. 2 is shown the construction made for corner posts. In both illustrations the post is designated by the letter A. At the bottom of the post is an anchor plate B, which at one end is fastened out to form a blade C. The opposite end of the anchor plate is doubled upon itself to receive the lower end of a diagonal brace D, the upper end of which is bolted to the post. An angle brace E is secured to the opposite side of the post and connects it to the anchor plate B. The spikes which pass through the anchor plate are long enough to be driven to a considerable depth in the ground, thus affording additional means for preventing the anchor plate from sliding out of position. In use a trench is dug at the point where the post is to be erected. The trench is just wide enough to receive the anchor plate B, and the blade C of the plate is driven into the undisturbed ground at the end of the trench, thus affording a firm anchorage. Thereafter the post is erected on the anchor plate and the braces D and E are bolted fast. For corner posts, the anchoring device is used in duplicate. The blades C of the anchor plates are driven into the ground at the side, where there will be a lifting strain imposed by the tension of the fence wires. The invention of this anchoring device for fence posts is Mr. Julius Laux, of Flatonia, Texas.

## AMMONIA PURIFIER FOR REFRIGERATING PLANTS.

A recent patent discloses an improved method of purifying ammonia, so as to render it anhydrous in refrigerating plants. The object is to produce a high grade of anhydrous ammonia continuously while the compressor is in operation. An apparatus is provided which is connected in circuit with the compressor and condenser and removes a portion of the heat from the compressed ammonia so as to condense the oil and water vapor and permit dry or partially cooled but uncondensed ammonia to be delivered to the condensing coil. In this way the amount of cooling that



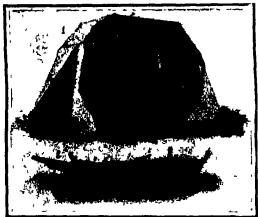
APPARATUS FOR PURIFYING AMMONIA FOR REFRIGERATING SYSTEMS.

is required in the condenser is reduced. The passage of oil to the condenser is prevented and the ammonia is condensed separately, so that only pure anhydrous ammonia is delivered to the expansion valve. The apparatus comprises two holders or drums A and B which are connected at the bottom by a pipe C. The drum B is preferably raised above the drum A. The compressed ammonia enters the drum A through pipe D and then passes through one or more connecting pipes E to the drum B after which it passes out through the pipe F. The cooling system consists in a pair of water chambers G and a pipe H, connecting the top of the water chamber in drum B with the bottom of the chamber in the drum A. The water passes through the cooling system in the reverse direction to the flow of ammonia through the apparatus. The temperature and rate of flow are so controlled that there will be no condensation of ammonia in the gas holder, but all the oil and water vapor which may be carried along with the ammonia will be condensed in these holders and accumulate in the lower portions. If the valve in the pipe C is opened, the oil and water will flow into the bottom of the drum A and may be drawn off at that point. The object of letting the pipe from the compressor pass up through the oil and water in the drum A is to heat the oil and thus prevent as far as possible the loss of ammonia. The inventor of this apparatus is Mr. Lawrence Warner of Missouri Avenue and Missouri Pacific Tracks, Sedalia, Missouri.

## CONVERTIBLE BOAT AND TENT.

For the benefit of campers, hunters, and the like, a folding tent has recently been devised which may be pushed into a very small compass and which may also be converted into a canvas boat. Our illustration shows the device in its two forms, partly broken away

to reveal the framework. It will be observed that the upper portion of the tent comprises a pair of laye tows A, connected by cross bars B. These are supported on four posts indicated at C and D, and the structure is rendered quite rigid by means of a system of guy wires. Slung from the framework are a pair of bars E which support a hammock F. The upper portion of the tent frame is covered with water proof canvas, and in addition to this, there is a lower canvas section which may be fastened to the upper section by means of buttons, thus forming a spacious tent, and the occupant can sleep on the hammock,



## CONVERTIBLE BOAT AND TENT.

which is a decided improvement over using the ground for a bed. When breaking camp the posts C and D are withdrawn from their sockets and the laye tows are folded up, so that the entire framework of the tent may be placed in a small bag. To convert this framework into a boat it is extended and inverted, so that the cross bars B form the bottom of the boat. The bars E of the hammock are hooked to the framework at one end and fastened together at their outer ends to form a bowsprit for the boat. The bowsprit is braced by a pair of arms H which are hinged to the cross bar G. It will be observed that the laye tows at J are extended to form outriggers and the posts C of the tent are so constructed as to form masts. The seat of the boat is supported on a pair of longitudinal beams A. The canvas part of the tent is applied to the framework including it and thus forming a flat bottomed canvas boat of large capacity. Mr. Joseph Vachl of Belhel, Conn. has just secured a patent on this convertible boat and tent.

## INDEX SYSTEM FOR POCKET MEMORANDA.

A patent has recently been granted on an improved pocket memorandum book, which is provided with a novel indexing system. The first leaf of the book is shorter than the others and serves as a topic list, being ruled to allow of entering various topics on which notes are to be kept. The other leaves of the book are cut with series of tabs as shown in the illustration, the tabs on each leaf corresponding in number to the topics provided for in the topic list. When notes on a subject are entered on one of the leaves of the book, all the tabs of this leaf except that opposite the topic to which the notes relate are cut away. When a leaf is filled, it may be removed and filed away in a card index. It is intended to permit the leaf to remain in the memorandum book after it has been completely filled, the tab is partially cut away so that it will still serve to locate the leaf but will not interfere with the thumb in readily finding the next tab underneath in the same series. In this way the entire memorandum book is so arranged that no matter it contains is always properly indexed, and may readily be referred to whenever desired. Furthermore the material is so placed and the leaves are so arranged that when they are removed and filed

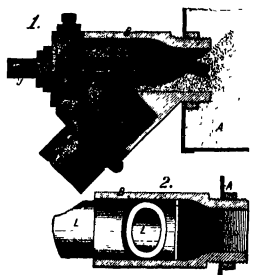


MEMORANDUM BOOK WITH NOVEL INDEX SYSTEM.

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#### IMPROVED TRACER SAUNDER.

Pictured in the accompanying engraving is an improved tracer tank made for use with locomotives. The apparatus is so arranged that two jets of compressed air are employed, one of which is directed against the sand in the sand box, serving to agitate it, while the other acts to discharge the same continuously and smoothly. Special precautions are taken to prevent the nozzle from being clogged with sand. In our illustration the sand box is indicated at A. The sander casing B is substantially of Y form. It is threaded into the sand box and held in place with a lock nut. At the opposite end of the casing is a plug C, provided with an extension D constituting the nozzle. At the extreme inner end of the extension D the bore is constricted to form a jet opening, which communicates with a recess in which a ball F is placed. In addition to this, there is an inclined jet opening H. At the opposite end of the plug there is a screen H which serves to strain the compressed air that enters by way of pipe J. In the other leg of the



IMPROVED TRACER SAUNDER.

Y-shaped casing is the pipe L, which leads to the point at which it is desired to discharge the sand. Within the casing, and extending partially over the passage leading to pipe L, is a shank K. In operation, when compressed air is admitted to the nozzle, it forces its way past the ball F into the sand of the sand box A. A portion of the air is directed backward to the jet opening E, producing a partial vacuum, which causes the sand that is agitated by the other jet of air to flow along the shank A, and thence to be carried down the discharge pipe L. The ball F prevents the constricted opening in the nozzle from being clogged with sand, and this constricted opening serves to reduce the fluid pressure by permitting its expansion past the ball F, so that a destructive sand blast is avoided thereby. The inventor of this improved tracer sander is Mr. John Henry Waters of Augusta, Ga.

#### BRIEF NOTES ABOUT NEW INVENTIONS.

The signaling sign which has been recently placed in front of a Denver business house is a visual as well as audible means of attracting the attention of passersby. The particular sign referred to displays the word "DANGER" and is of the electric flashing type. The illumination of one letter follows the other, and as the lamps comprising each letter are flashed, a wooden hammer strikes one of a series of orchestral chimes. There is a different bell for each letter, and the chimes represent a complete octave. The combination of sounds may be varied at will with but little trouble.

The illuminated elevator threshold is a new means to prevent what is a quite common form of elevator accident. The elevator attendant, making hundreds of stops in the course of a day, is not always enabled to bring the car to a halt at the exact floor level, and a very slight variation is sufficient to give the passenger a jolt if not more serious injury. The floor of the car being held an inch or two above that of the

building is likely to trip the unguarded person about to enter the car, while persons stepping out are liable to be thrown down. The latest method of avoiding this is the insertion of a pair of plate glass lenses in the metal of the threshold, with an incandescent lamp under each. These are kept in operation all the time the car is in use. The lamps are supplied through the elevator cable in the same manner as the overhead lamps. This device has been tried with eminent success in some moving-picture establishments, where the rear seats are slightly above the level of the aisle floor.

The jobbing carpenter moving around from one place to another, and looting for a new day at a time in one spot, in the course of his peripatetic career is compelled to spend considerable of his time in the construction of wooden houses or trailers, which are generally so necessary for his work. These things are of such an awkward shape and size that it is out of the question to carry them from point to point, so he is compelled to build them in many cases before he can proceed with his work. To meet such demands, houses of steel with collapsible legs have recently been made, so that they may be readily packed up and carried from place to place. The legs are laid over on the back of the trailer when not in use and when being transported, and in this form they are very compact. Being of angle iron, the trailer is not heavy and is almost overlasting.

#### ODDITIES IN INVENTIONS.

**HAT FASTENERS.**—The recent agitation against long hats has not a Yankee inventor to thinking. He has arranged a hatpin which has no exposed point, and which does not have to be removed from the hat, but which may be operated to engage the hair by giving it a half turn. The hatpin extends from side to side of the crown of the hat, and is provided



A NOVEL TYPE OF HATPIN.

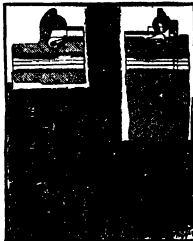
with a series of hooks or knuckles sharply pointed at the ends, so that when the pin is turned they will hook into the hair. Whether the hat fastener has been tried in actual practice we do not know but it seems as if there would be considerable danger of entangling the hair in the curved hooks.

**DEVICE FOR DRAWING OR REMOVING OVERSHOES.**—An inventor does not have to go far afield for objects upon which to exercise his inventive faculties. Even in the most commonplace matters of everyday life there is room for improvement. Take, for instance, the method of removing one's overshoe; the usual way of tettering on one foot while trying to kick the shoe off the other foot is most awkward, to say

the least. Recently, an inventor has devised a little attachment for the cane or umbrella, whereby one can stand firmly on one foot and steady himself with the umbrella while removing the overshoe by pressing the lug at the back of the overshoe against the attachment on the umbrella. The inventor has provided a

more elaborate device to hold the overshoe in place while drawing it on. The lug at the heel of the overshoe is so formed that it can be engaged between a pair of jaw clamps, one of which is fixed while the other is spring-actuated. The device is applicable to a cane, and running from the movable jaw is within a convenient distance of the heel of the shoe is a rod, which may be lifted to release the jaws.

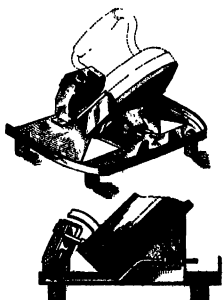
**LOCUMOTIVE CURSORS.**—When using a gun in the dark or deep twilight, it is very difficult to secure accurate aim, because the sights are invisible. This difficulty has frequently been experienced by snarlers,



LOCUMOTIVE CURSORS FOR TWILIGHT SHOOTING.

who should be able to cover an approaching enemy with accuracy, in order to secure their own safety as well as that of the camp. To enable this to be done, an inventor has recently devised a gun in which the sights are luminous. This is effected by means of a pair of small electric lamps lighted by batteries placed in the stock of the gun. The sectional view in the accompanying cut shows how the lamps are arranged. The sights are formed with prisms, which at their lower ends communicate with chambers in which the lamps are located. The lamps are lit only when the trigger is partially pressed, so that it is not necessary for the sentry to expose his whereabouts until he is ready to fire. The sights are of such a nature that they may be used in the daytime with the lamps disconnected, a switch being provided for opening or closing the lamp circuit.

**BURROW FOR REMOTELY HEATED FLATIRONS.**—A novel support has recently been invented for electrically heated flatirons. It is so arranged that the current is turned on only when the iron is on the support. The support consists of a metallic base provided with top of insulating material and upon which is mounted, in inclined position, a plate of slate. On this the flatiron is adapted to be supported, so that the head of the flatiron will slide down and bear against a block of insulating material at the rear of the base. In this block are two sockets, provided with metallic clips forming the terminals of an electric circuit. The flatiron, which is provided with a usual heating coil, has two terminal pins near



SUPPORT FOR REMOTELY HEATED FLATIRONS.

**DESIGN FOR DRAWING ON ANY KNOVING OVERSEER.**

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(Continued from page 428.)

working, and the explosion is propagated thence through the gallery to the shaft. Hence, by applying this paste to a small region near such working, it is possible to confine the explosion to the workings themselves and to protect the rest of the mine, without the necessity of applying the same precaution through miles of galleries. This fact greatly reduces the expense and trouble involved in a coal mine. Practical experiments in a Westphalian mine and in an experimental gallery have proved the correctness of the theory upon which this process is based. In the mine, the walls remained damp 8,000 hours after the application of the paste, but they dried up within six hours when water was used. The explosion of 75 grains of dynamite produced a sufficiently powerful flame to explode a mixture of coal dust and air when the walls of the gallery are dry, and for this reason the use of dynamite in coal mines is prohibited by law. The experiments prove that in a mine gallery protected by the Kruskopf process, more than five ounces of dynamite can be exploded in a mixture of coal gas and air without causing explosion. The experiment was repeated twelve times. After each blast, the quantity of coal dust in the mixture was increased by the addition of a food amount of dry dust, but the application of the paste or water was not renewed in these conditions, when water was used, ignition took place after the third blast, but the first fatal explosion occurred after the twelfth blast when the Kruskopf paste was employed. These conditions are very much more unfavorable than those which occur in the practical operation of coal mines.

## Colors of Foods.

Of the strong addition many consumers have for the use of foodstuffs that are securely and highly colored for the market, the London food news says: "For some not quite clear reason there are many people who look upon the brown egg as necessarily a new laid one, and hence a demand for such eggs has arisen, which is easily met not by the honest brown egg, but by the white egg which has been steeped in a dye which renders it visually indistinguishable from the real article. Again, when milk happens to be of a buff tinge, it is commonly held to be richer than white milk. Of course nothing can be easier than to satisfy this preference for a milk of a creamy shade. White-looking bottles are dislaid as looking too much like dripping. The remedy is simple, it is artificially colored. Vegetables must be bright green to make them look fresh, the consumers of them being quite willing to ignore the fact that copper does not make them fresh or wholesome. On the other hand, curiously enough, bread must be white. A correspondence last week submitted to us a brown-headed egg which on opening displayed a gorgeous red coloring scattered chiefly through the white. On analysis the coloring proved to be an anilin dye. The dye had deposited a nice brown on the shell, but an excess had permeated its pores, and meeting with the slightly acid contents, was changed to a porvine color inside. Until the egg was opened, therefore, it appeared perfectly attractive, but on opening the nest to eat it quickly disappeared."

# Edison Breaks Silence

The world has long waited for a direct message from Thomas A. Edison. It is his rule not to write for publication. He has broken it this once and the lucky medium to receive his precious communication is *Popular Electricity*, in the June issue of which will appear the most important & thrillingly interesting forecast of the future—


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
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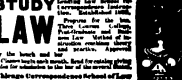


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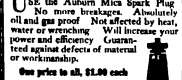
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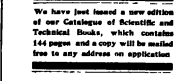
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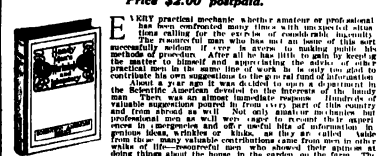
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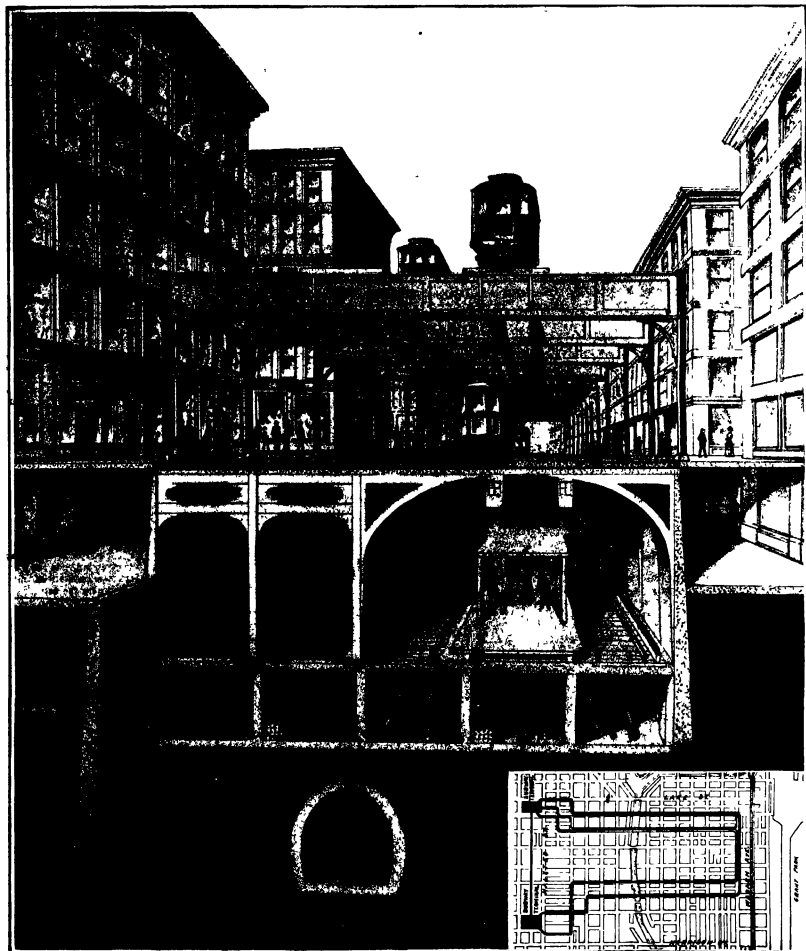
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First section of subway to be undertaken.

Chicago proposes gradually to place all tracks, surface and elevated, that enter the business zone, below street level. The above view shows a station on the new Wabash Avenue four-track subway. The trolley cars are to the right, the elevated express cars use the left-hand track. The lowest tunnel is the present 60-mile freight subway.

**HOW CHICAGO IS SOLVING ITS RAPID TRANSIT PROBLEM**—(See page 459)



## AEROPLANE

On May 19, 1916, the first flight of the new biplane to Chicago was made. It was a flight of about 20 miles across country. The flight was made in a biplane at a distance of 14 1/2 miles an hour.

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Another new airplane that has been successfully flown is that of Mr. Gardner Hubbard, which was built by Messrs. McCurdy and Baldwin at Bedford, Canada. This machine is a cross between the Bleriot and the Curtiss type. It is a biplane with a very high wing, the overall length being 34 feet and the spread of the wings 50 feet 4 inches. It weighs complete about 1,000 pounds without the aviator. A 40-horsepower, six-cylinder water-cooled motor of 150 horsepower furnishing the motive power. The propeller is driven by sprockets and chain, with a gear reduction of three to five. On April 21, nine flights were made above the lake on Lake Erie, O., by Mr. Hubbard, who had never flown before. The monoplane reached an elevation of about ten feet, and flew several hundred feet each time.

In a recent aeronautic note we mentioned an airplane flight of five minutes duration with four passengers. As a matter of fact Mr. Roger Sommer took two passengers with him on his record breaking flight of April 20th. These were Mile Durieux (45 kilograms, 98 pounds) and Mile Colombo (60 kilograms, 132 pounds) and Fry (55 kilograms, 125 pounds). Sommer himself weighs 151 pounds. The total live load was 356 pounds, and the weight of the biplane complete was 850 pounds, making a total weight of 1,206 pounds that flew for five minutes. The weight-lifting efficiency of Sommer's machine is therefore 98 per cent. The previous record of this kind was made by Henry Farman with a similar machine when he carried 10 kilograms in 16 1/2 minutes with two passengers weighing 110 kilograms plus 30 kilograms of ballast.

On the 19th instant, Messrs. A. H. Purdie and J. C. Faint made an ascent at Queens, N. Y., in the new biplane "Viking." The flight was made at a distance of 20 miles across country. The flight was made in a biplane at a distance of 14 1/2 miles an hour.

## ELECTRICITY

By using a stethoscope and a sensitive telephone relay, the heart beats of a patient in London were transmitted to the home of John Milne, the noted astronomer, on the Isle of Wight. The heart throbs were heard by four physicians over an ordinary telephone, and so clear was the transmission that it was possible to diagnose the heart troubles. It is expected that this use of the stethoscope with a telephone relay will enable physicians to keep in better touch with their patients.

An electrical thermometer which is very sensitive to slight fluctuations of temperature, has recently been put out by a German company for medical use, to determine the degree of fever. It consists of a coil of platinum wire inserted in a quartz glass tube, through which a current is passed from a four-volt storage battery. The tube is placed in the armpit of the patient, and a millivoltmeter indicates variations in the resistance of the coil, due to the heat of the body. The millivoltmeter traces a temperature curve on a hand of paper, and in this way it is possible to study the action of drugs on the patient.

According to a recent press report, stemships of the French Transatlantic line are using the apparatus invented by Signor Bellini and Tosi of the Italian navy, by which wireless messages may be transmitted in and received from, this desired direction. The particular advantage of this apparatus on shipboard is the fact that it enables the operator to determine from what direction a signal is coming, and the course of the vessel can be governed accordingly. Recently the "Provence" crossed the Atlantic, equipped with this apparatus, and was able to determine the positions of various vessels passing in the vicinity. The danger of collision was thus entirely obviated.

An interesting paper on insulating materials for wireless telegraphy was read recently before a meeting of the Wireless Institute in this city by Mr. Brian J. Mills. He pointed out that rubber is not permanent, but apt to deteriorate, that marble is hydroscopic and will be relied upon because of its irregular composition, that porcelain is apt to contain hidden defects, and that glass, while the defects it contains may be detected visually and thus avoided, is extremely fragile. He spoke of mica and of wood as good insulators if kept dry, and dry oil is a good insulator for the reason that it is liquid and "settles" the air. Dry air is a poor insulator, and for high voltages, compressed air may be used.

The advantages of an electrical shovel over a steam shovel have recently been portrayed, showing that wherever electricity is available at moderate rates, the electric shovel is much to be preferred. One of the chief objections to the steam shovel is the fact that the expenses of a fireman must be paid, and the fuel, as well as the water, have frequently to be stored for a very long distance. Steam must be kept up continuously, despite all delays in operating the shovel, while for the electric shovel the same arguments apply as are made in behalf of electric drive in machine shops, namely, that when the shovel is idle there is no consumption of power, yet the power is ready for instant use whenever it is needed.

An interesting discussion by Dr. Charles P. Steinmetz on the magnetic properties of materials was published in a recent number of the Electrical World. It was stated some years ago that the electric alloy could be made by combining non-magnetic materials. Dr. Steinmetz points to the fact that in all the Heusler alloys manganese is used, and that this is slightly ferromagnetic. One of the simplest of the alloy steels is combining one part of manganese with three parts of antimony, the mixture being made by powdering the metals and then heating them in a test tube, the result is a black powder which is strongly magnetic. Dr. Steinmetz states that no magnetic alloy has been found that does not contain some of the ferromagnetic group—iron, cobalt, nickel, manganese and chromium.

Now that air craft have been entered as war vessels, inventors are beginning to cast about for some effective means of destroying them. Recently an American inventor, which, by means of a Hertzian wave controlling system, may be directed from a distance without carrying any operator. This torpedo was exhibited at the London Hippodrome, where the inventor claimed it to travel out over the audience, steering it wherever he pleased by pressing buttons on a switchboard on the stage. The torpedo is provided with two screws, which may be operated independently to steer the ship laterally, while a horizontal roller mechanism steers it vertically. The device may also be equipped with explosives, to be dropped on the enemy when the torpedo has been maneuvered to the right position where it is desired to be exploded by releasing the button on the audience.

## SCIENCE

Edward H. Carruth, an associate of the United States Weather Bureau, died recently at Washington at the age of 87. He had been connected with the Weather Bureau practically since its establishment, which means for more than half a century.

After thirty months' cruising in Philippine waters, the Fish and Game Commission's steamer "Albatross," Commander C. M. McCormick, United States Navy, entered the Golden Gate, San Francisco, and dropped anchor. The "Albatross" has been engaged in a thorough examination of the fish in Philippine waters.

When one solid body glides over the surface of an other, the coefficient of friction diminishes as the velocity increases and nearly vanishes when the velocity attains a certain critical value. This diminution of friction is due to the air which partially separates the two bodies at low relative velocities and separates them completely at the critical and all higher velocities.

Dr. Douglas Dawson, who accompanied Sir Ernest Shackleton on his last Antarctic expedition, arrived recently in this country, bound for Sydney, New South Wales, to resume his duties as lecturer on geology in Sydney University. Dr. Dawson reiterated the statements already made by Sir Ernest Shackleton that there is an immense stream of coal within 300 miles from the South Pole.

An interesting method for measuring the transparency of developed photographic plates has been devised by Dr. L. H. Friedberg. A polarized light apparatus is used. An opaque plate is placed between the plane of polarization, when interposed between two parallel mounted tourmaline plates cut parallel to their optical axis, will reduce the angle of 90 degrees between extreme brightness and maximum darkness by an amount proportional to the density of the silver deposit.

The emission spectra produced by certain elements heated in quartz tubes to 2,000 deg. F. have recently been studied. It is found that in these circumstances sulphur produces a blue light and a nearly continuous spectrum. Selenium gives a pale yellow light with bands, which are generally well defined, but become uncertain toward the red end. Tellurium produces a green light and its spectrum contains numerous bands which are also fairly toward the red end. Phosphorus and arsenic give a white light and continuous spectrum, which is very bright. The continuous spectrum, crossed by very ill-defined bands.

The distinguished German chemist Ostwald has taken out a German patent for the improvement of drawing inks and water colors. He has found that by the addition of small quantities of certain elements (100 to 1,000) of volatile organic compounds of the aliphatic series, which are soluble in water, at least to a small extent and contain not less than four atoms of carbon (like drawing inks and other water colors) are rendered capable of readily marking such surfaces as parchment, ivory, waxed paper, etc. In the case of neutral liquids, an alcohol, ether, or other neutral substance is used, while in acid lakes, free fatty acids, such as valeric or caproic acid may be added.

How bright is the sun? No two authorities agree. Another estimate has recently been made by T. Nordmann. The effective temperature determined by his method is 5,700 degrees Celsius. The sun is now, the brightness of an incandescent body emitting white light varies sensibly as a function of the temperature, and this law has been verified by comparison with the brightness of light sources. The sun is now, the brightness of an incandescent body emitting white light varies sensibly as a function of the temperature, and this law has been verified by comparison with the brightness of light sources. The sun is now, the brightness of an incandescent body emitting white light varies sensibly as a function of the temperature, and this law has been verified by comparison with the brightness of light sources.

Draculins has made a study of the chemical character of various alloys of cobalt with tin, antimony, bismuth, lead, and copper, by measuring the difference of potential between each alloy and each of its constituents. The results are expressed in graphical form. The curve of the cobalt-tin alloys shows a distinct inflection at the percentage of 68 1/2 tin, which corresponds to the compound CoSn. The cobalt-antimony curve indicates the existence of two definite compounds, CoSb and CoSb<sub>2</sub>. The cobalt-bismuth alloys also show two distinct compounds. The electro-motive force produced by these alloys is very small. The curve shows that in the preparation of the two metals by the process of solution, the cobalt remains undissolved in practically pure condition, while the solution of bismuth contains a large percentage of cobalt. The density of the cobalt-tin alloy is similar to that of the alloys of cobalt and bismuth.



# THE LATEST GIANT FREIGHT ENGINE

FOR USE ON THE HEAVY GRADES OF THE DELAWARE & HUDSON RAILROAD

It takes but a glance at these photographs of the huge Delaware & Hudson freight engine recently turned out from the shops of the American Locomotive Company to realize to what

prolonged and proper times the freight engine has grown. The two men inside the 41-inch low-pressure cylinders one of them comfortably seated, the stalwart mechanic standing erect in the 90-inch front end of the boiler with a foot and a half clearance between his head and the roof, tell their own story of dimensions. To this may be added the following particulars: There are, as usual in the articulated type, two engines on two trucks, the forward a low pressure with cylinders 41 inches diameter by 24 inches stroke, the after engine a high pressure with

cylinders 26 inches diameter by 25 inches stroke. Each engine drives eight, coupled, 51-inch driving wheels which carry the whole weight, 445,000 pounds,

ring, has a total heating surface of 6,829 square feet, and it supplies steam at 250 pounds pressure.

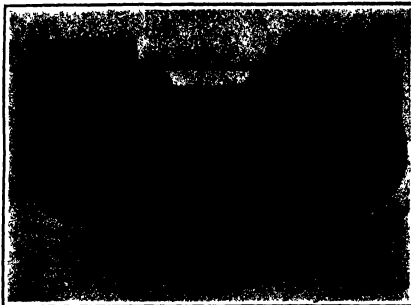
The tender carries 9,000 gallons of water and 14 tons of coal; its weight loaded is 104,000 pounds; and the engine and tender together weigh 611,000 pounds.

The engine can haul on the level 2,000 miles per hour 100 fifty-ton cars, each of which loaded will weigh 5 tons. This will mean a load behind the tender of 5,000 tons, or a total load for the train of over 7,500 tons.

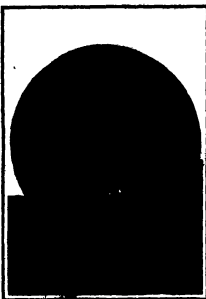
The company has built six of these engines for the Delaware & Hudson Company.

They are designed for pusher service on the Wilkes-Barre & Susquehanna division of that road, between Carbondale, Pa., and Oneonta, N. Y.—a distance of 95 miles.

(Continued on page 440)



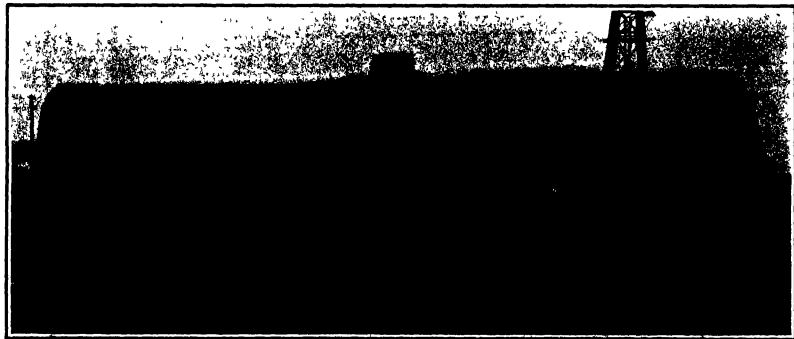
A man can be comfortably seated in each of the 41-inch low-pressure cylinders.



Front end of boiler is 7½ feet diameter.

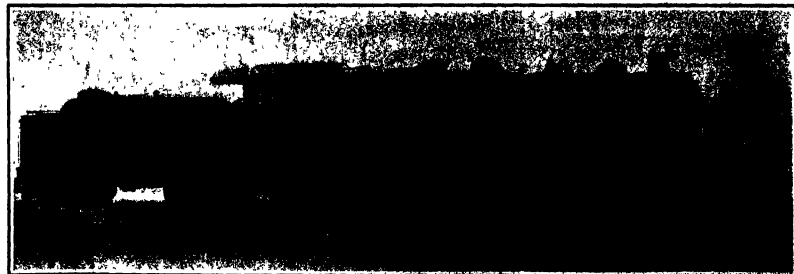
of the engine. The tractive power working compound is 105,000 pounds, and the calculated horse-power under ordinary working is over 2,600.

The huge boiler, 90 inches diameter at its smallest



Largest diameter, 90 inches. Length, 44 feet 10 inches. Weight with water, 40 tons. Firebox, 12 feet 6 inches by 5 feet 6 inches—would make a fair living room.

The huge boiler is the secret of an American locomotive's great power.



Weight, engine and tender, 611,000 pounds. Weight on drivers, 445,000 pounds. Cylinders: High-pressure, 26 inches by 25 inches; low-pressure, 41 inches by 24 inches. Tractive power: Compound, 105,000 pounds; simple, 125,000 pounds. Boiler pressure, 250 pounds. Heating surface, 6,829 square feet.

THE LATEST OF THE NEW ARTICULATED FREIGHT ENGINES

## Eiffel's Recent Experiments on the Resistance of the Air

BY JACQUES BOYER

Eiffel's first experiments on the resistance of the air, a problem which is now engaging the attention of many scientists because of its importance in aeronautics, were made in 1894 at the famous Eiffel Tower, which was constructed for the Paris Exposition of 1889. The surface on which the pressure of the air was to be studied was allowed to fall from the platform of the second story of the tower, in connection with a chronographic apparatus, which recorded the resistance opposed by the air at each instant. The surface was carried downward by a heavy and dense mass, offering little resistance to the air. This mass was placed above the surface, with which it was connected by springs, which were compressed more or less, according to the air resistance.

The velocity of fall ranged from 50 to 150 feet per second. The apparatus was guided in its fall by a vertical cable, and was prevented from striking the ground by a progressive enlargement of this cable beginning at the height of about 70 feet from the ground. In this way the falling body was gradually brought to rest by the action of spring brakes. A tuning fork, making 100 vibrations per second, was attached to the surface. To one of the prongs of this tuning fork was attached a style, which as the fork vibrated, moved vertically over the surface of a vertical cylinder, which was covered with paper coated with lampblack, and was caused to revolve with a speed proportional to the velocity of fall. Hence the record takes the form of a fine sinusoid, the median line or axis of which forms an irregular line around the cylinder. Each point of this axis corresponds to a certain position of the falling body. The number of oscillations between this point and the beginning of the trace, gives the time; the ordinate of the point indicates the tension of the springs, and consequently the pressure of the air on the surface, at that instant; and the abscissa is proportional to the distance through which the body has fallen. Hence the trace gives the position and velocity of the body and the resistance opposed to its motion by the air at every instant. Eiffel experimented in this way with plane surfaces of various forms, square, oblong, circular, continuous, and cut or perforated, with groups of superposed plane surfaces, and even with spherical and conical surfaces. He arrived at the following conclusions: For velocities between 50 and 150 feet per second, the resistance of the air is very approximately proportional to the square of the velocity. The exponent of the velocity differs very slightly from 2 and appears to increase regularly with the velocity, passing through the value 2, at the velocity of 110 feet per second. The pressure per square inch was furthermore found to increase with the area of the surface.

The influence exerted by superposed surfaces on

each other is very great. In some cases the resistance is smaller for a group of surfaces than for a single surface. For surfaces inclined to the direction of the wind, Eiffel formulated in 1893 the following law. For inclinations to the horizon varying between 0 and 10 degrees, the pressure is proportional to the angle, while for inclinations greater than 30 degrees, the resistance is constant.

In order to extend these observations (which have

an upward pull at  $f$  produced by the weight  $P$ , in the balance above. When equilibrium is established the moment of the forces which tend to move the experimental surface and its support round the knife edge  $A$ , can be computed from the weight in the scale pan. Two weighings are made, when the air is at rest and when it is in motion at known velocity. The moment produced by the air current is the difference of the two results. The other end of the rod  $B$  carries a second knife edge  $H$ , which is directed upward and which can be brought to bear against its seat by shortening the rod  $H$ , by means of the eccentric  $G$ . In this way the moment of the air pressure around  $B$  can be measured. Thus it is possible to measure the moments of the pressure with respect to two points, further more, as the rod  $C$  can be rotated about its axis, the elements of the resultant pressure upon an inclined surface can be determined by making four measurements, at all angles differing by a right angle. The vertical part  $D$  is a rod of cast steel, which is capable of slight motion in a sheath attached to the floor of the room above, on which the balance stands. This sheath which is very narrow and is located in front and behind, protects the vertical rod from the air current, without appreciably affecting the latter. The horizontal part  $F$  is provided with a pair of knife edges at each end. The knife edges at the front or windward end  $A$  are directed downward and backward, while those of the other end  $H$  are directed upward and backward. The seats of these knife edges have projections, which prevent the knife edges from moving along the grooves in which they turn. By moving a lever, the knife edges in front can be lifted from their seats to protect them from wear, except during the actual experiment. The rod  $H$ , which connects the frame  $B$  with the beam of the balance, touches these parts only by means of knife edges. In short all the moving parts of the apparatus turn on knife edges, and the friction is negligible. The Tahaped piece  $J$  weighs more than 100 pounds. This great weight is not an inconvenience but serves two useful purposes, by lessening and damping the secondary oscillations, due to small variations in the force of the air currents, and by making the equilibrium of the balance stable in every relative position of the current and the surface. The entire apparatus is supported by a massive wooden platform, about 5 feet square, which rests on a double layer of sleepers, buried 10 feet below the floor of the room and lying parallel with the direction of the air current.

The current of air is drawn through a tube 4½ feet in diameter, and every precaution is taken to keep its strength uniform during the experiment. The air is drawn from a large closed room in which the surface

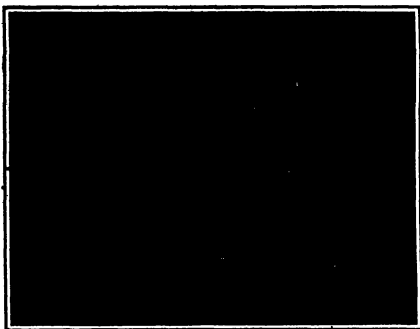


Fig. 3.—The Eiffel aerodynamic balance placed above the experiment room.

been fully described in the *Scientific American*.) Eiffel constructed in 1906 an aerodynamic laboratory at the Champ de Mars, Paris, where he has subsequently conducted experiments with fixed surfaces, exposed to air currents produced by a blower of 50 kilowatt power. By this method he was able not only to obtain the resultant pressure, but to determine the distribution of pressure on both sides of the surface and the movement of the air in its vicinity.

In order to place the surface in conditions as nearly as possible identical with those produced by a natural wind or by movement in the open air, the air current must have so large a cross section that its exterior filaments will not be affected by the presence of the surface. The pressures experienced by the surface are measured by an aerodynamic balance, by which it is possible to determine the horizontal and vertical components, as well as the center of pressure, data which are very important in the construction of aeroplanes. The aerodynamic balance is shown in diagram in Figs. 1 and 2. The experimental surface is attached to the rod  $C$ , which is placed parallel to the air current. This rod is attached to a rigid Tahaped frame  $DN$ , which is capable of motion around a knife edge  $A$ . The action of the air current is opposed by

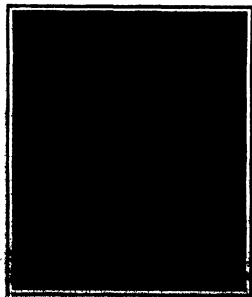


Fig. 4.—Experimental results of Eiffel's aerodynamic laboratory.

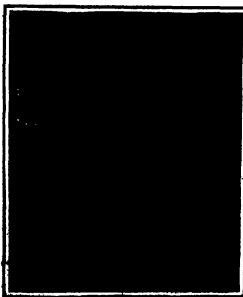


Fig. 7.—The inlet of the blower.



Fig. 8.—Arrangement of apparatus for measuring pressures at various points of the surface.

REPRODUCED FROM EXPERIMENTS ON THE RESISTANCE OF THE AIR.

is placed near the inlet of the blower, and not at its outlet, as is usually done. The air which leaves a blower is subjected to irregular disturbances, which cannot be overcome sufficiently to produce uniform and constant velocity over the entire surface of the apparatus. The apparatus is placed so that the balance is in the room above, where the observer is stationed. The air enters the experiment room through a reticular diaphragm in parallel filaments. At the opposite end of the room is the mouth of the conduit, which leads to the blower and which carries the fire granules. The air is drawn off about 40 inches above the blower, which almost completely eliminates all irregularities of flow. The air leaves the blower through a conduit which gradually enlarges and serves first merely to assure regularity of flow. Hence, the velocity and direction of the air current passing through the apparatus is not affected by the wind outside.

The velocities of the air current are deduced from the readings of manometers, and the results have been verified in the following manner. One of the surfaces exposed to the current was perforated with a large number of holes in the form of which was counterbored a screw, having at its center an orifice  $1/50$  inch in diameter. By measuring with a small manometer the pressure produced behind each of these orifices, and integrating the result, the same resultant force thus has been indicated by the balance was obtained.

We cannot here relate in detail all the interesting results which Kiffel and his assistant Leon Kith have already obtained in this laboratory. We will mention only a few of the more important conclusions.

Kiffel has proved that the value of the horizontal component, or resistance to the advance of an aeroplane, increases continually with the inclination of the surface to the horizon, while the vertical component attains a maximum at an inclination of 15 degrees, and thereafter diminishes very rapidly, and vanishes at 90 degrees. I.e., when the plane is ver-

The surface employed in these experiments had a plane of symmetry parallel to the wind in order to determine the directions of air filaments in this plane, a short and very light wire, attached to the end of a thin rod, was placed at various points of the plane, and the position and direction of the wire were determined as accurately as possible. In most cases it was found that exactly near the front edge of the plane, the direction of the wire fluctuated rapidly between two fixed directions of the wire was due to the fact that at any instant the air flows according to a definite, but not constant, pattern. Only a very small influence is required to pass from one system to another. The various possible systems of flow could be approximately determined by careful observation and comparison of the directions of the

Fig. 3 shows the directions of the air streamlines near a square surface, the plane of which makes an angle of 40 degrees with the direction of the current. Figure 4 shows the directions of the stream lines near a square inclined 80 degrees to the current. It will be observed that these lines are very variable and consequently very instable. The same fact is shown when the surface is perpendicular to the current. Fig. 5 shows the average direction of the air at various points in this case in the two regions inclosed by the dotted lines, the disturbance is so great that no mean direction of flow could be determined.

In regard to the center of pressure, this coincides with the center of figures if the surface is horizontal, gradually moves forward as the inclination increases

to 15 degrees, and thence rounds as the inclination is increased, and again attains the center of figure when the surface becomes perpendicular to the current. Finally, Eiffel indorses the almost universal preference of aviators for curved sustaining surfaces, and proves that, for a given resistance to forward movement, the curved surface always develops a greater lifting power than the plane surface, especially at small inclinations.

### The Transit of Haller's Comet.

The transit of Halley's comet and the expected immersion of the earth in the tail of that historic body have proven once more what may happen to the best laid plans of mathematicians. The transit undoubtedly occurred, but whether or not the earth really encountered the tail seems to be a matter of considerable doubt. When the night of May 18th came, and the scientific world was all agog, the tail was so curved that the passage of the earth through it seemed only remotely possible. On the morning of the 20th a broad band of light that stretched along the horizon for a distance varying from 120 to 140 degrees pro-

was, about the future Soviet. The danger is in expedience, which it is almost safe to assert will leave that theory unimpaired.

Similarly, every station must be on the alert for preparations being made by meteorologists, hydrographers and physicians. The most important meteorological conditions of the world must be sounding balloons at frequent intervals on the 15th and 19th of May, for the express purpose of bringing down from the upper strata of the atmosphere some record of unusual happenings which might safely be attributed to the influence of the comet. All this labor is now in vain. Fortunately, it is very unlikely that the instructions issued forth by the United States Hydrographic Office to wireless operators, charging them to note any oddities and unusual effects on their instruments, will prove barren.

The expedition which was sent to the Hawaiian Islands by the Astronomical and Astrophysical Society of America for the purpose of observing the transit cables a preliminary report of complete inability to note any transit whatever. This was more or less expected. In 1890 a transit occurred which was fortunately

In 1869 a transit occurred which was fortunately observed by Mr. James H. Moulton at the Cape of Good Hope.

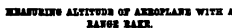
The comet of 1883 was followed by him "constantly right into the boiling of the limb." No sounder as it touched it than if it vanished as it disappeared. So sudden was the disappearance, that the comet was at first believed to have passed behind the sun. As a matter of fact, the observation at the Cape had witnessed a genuine transit. The experience of the observers at the Hawaiian Islands with Halley's comet seems to have been exactly similar. On the whole, this apparent failure to observe the creeping of a black speck across the face of the sun may be deemed a confirmation of our present theories that the bulk of a comet is too dimly to be detected in the blinding glare of our central luminary.

Although the passage of the earth through the tail of Halley's comet turned out to be an extraordinary disappointment, it is vain to charge such mathematical astronomers with incompetence. A comet's tail is so capricious, so fluctuating in structure, it changes with such startling rapidity, that the predictions of any astronomer with regard to its behavior must always be slated with some

[illegible]

### MEASURING A PROPLANE HAIRY

The principle on which this depends is that of similar triangles, the same being illustrated by the accompanying diagram. From this diagram and description it can readily be seen that the short base line precludes any great accuracy in the computations.



$BO:AD::\sin A:X$  of =width of aeroplane,  $BO$  apparent width measured on the rake.

First Lieutenant Signal Corps, United States Army.  
President of San Francisco, Cal.

**2. ANALYSIS.**  
**2.1. THE CASE OF  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .**

On our front page is shown a cross-section of one of the future stations on Wabash Avenue. As seen in this picture, the tracks lie close to the street surface. Because of the danger to certain building foundations, a low-level subway is impracticable, and the cost would be prohibitive. As the entire subway is to lie in the soft blue clay that underlies the business district, a special type of construction will be needed. The outside ends of the subway walls must be so constructed as to bear heavy pressure from any side.

This comprehensive plan is the outcome of several months of investigation by City Engineer John Ericson. The result is a scheme of construction that is well adapted to meet the peculiar needs of a city that has its entire business interest within an area of six square miles. Whatever slight variations may be made in the plans during the progress of construction the scheme for construction as here described will be the general foundation for whatever subways may be built.

The Gerratt flexible-railroad locomotive is the subject of the opening article of the current SUPPLEMENT, No. 1795. The salient features of the locomotive are described in detail, and the advantages for operations on steep grades and sharp curves of the flexible track are described by Consul General Harry A. McBride, of Bilbao. From the beginning, American agriculture has been characterized by the extensive use of machinery, and the American farmer has always been more abundant than labor. Prof. Homer C. Henshaw contributes an article entitled "The Reorganization of American Farming" in which he points out that the problem which now confronts the American farmer is the lack of labor. The article is illustrated by a picture of a farmer plowing. Prof. Henshaw presents the first installment of a paper on "Measuring Instruments of Long Ago." "Ho, a Thirteenth Century Language," is the title of an article describing a universal tongue which is intended to take the place of all other languages. The article is illustrated by a picture of a man speaking into a megaphone. Prof. Ralph Barton Perry writes on the prophecy of Francis Bacon. A profile puppet show can be made, as described by A. Rose. Some new electrical and physical apparatus are illustrated. Prof. E. A. Mendenhall discusses the progress of the study of the history of science and modern knowledge.

The words "sanitarium" and "sanatorium" are popularly understood to have the same meaning and are generally used interchangeably, when designating (or describing) places of refuge for sick people but there is, in fact, quite a distinction between the meaning of the two words. In answer to a correspondent on this subject the Literary Digest says

"The distinction between these words lies in the fact that they are derived from two different Latin roots. "Sanatorium" is derived from the late Latin *sanatorius*, meaning *healing* giving "the term relates specially to an institution for treatment of disease or care of invalids, especially an establishment employing medical treatment, especially in connection with the locality, or some specific treatment, or treating particular diseases". On the other hand, "sanitarium" is derived from the Latin *sanitas* from *sanus* meaning *whole* or *sound* "Sanitarium" relates more specifically to "a place where the hygienic conditions are preservative of health, as distinguished from one where therapeutic agencies are employed". Hence it is the province of "sanitarium" to preserve health, while "sanatorium" is to cure disease. Hence the difference in combining the proper vowels in these two words is order to indicate correctly the derivation".

In our issue of May 14th we published an article on the utilization of wireless telegraphy in connection with a Chalmers-Detroit automobile in the Glidden tour. Through inadvertence, we neglected to state in the article that the wireless installation was devised by Dr. Lee DeForest.

## THE SANTAGO EARTHQUAKE.

BY PROF. HERBERT HARRISON, COSTA RICA STATE COLLEGE.

On May 4th, at 6 50 P. M., the city of Cartago, former capital of Costa Rica, was wiped out of existence by an explosive earthquake which lasted but a few

seconds. The destructive motion was mainly vertical and began suddenly, that is, without the preliminary shocks which usually give most people time enough to run out from their houses. Immediately after the heavy up-and-down motion came a long series of smaller

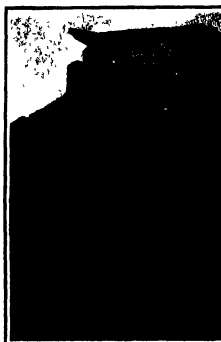
shocks, among which a primary motion was perceptible. The shock caused by the instantaneous fall of houses and public buildings was so great that many people thought they had escaped death by crushing only to die of exhaustion. Twenty thousand people



A corner of the Palace de la Paz



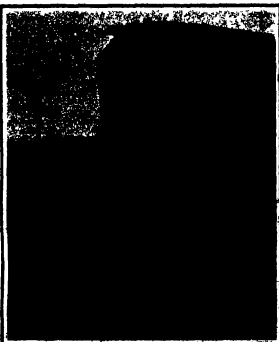
El Palacio de la Paz (Palace of Peace) gift of Cartago, just completed.



A primary school.



House of Foot Togo, who was killed on the sidewalk.



Rear view of the wrecked convent.



Front facade of the convent. Note the absolute wrecking of the massive towers.



Top of church tower badly torn, showing the damage to the structure.

TERRIBLE RESULTS OF THE "EXPLOSIVE" EARTHQUAKE AT CARTAGO, COSTA RICA.

May 24, 1910.

any left without shelter. As the writer is sending this warning (May 24) 190 persons have been dug out of the ruins. That number is rapidly increasing. The number of the wounded is not yet known. They are carried daily, by special trains, to San José. The destruction and suffering are intense. Persons who wish to help may do so through the American legation in San José.

During the year, 1909 small earthquakes in Cartago had been rather frequent, and the writer, who had a seismograph in the Cartago College, began to send regular reports to the recently founded Strasbourg Central Bureau of the International Association of Seismology. On April 12th, 1910, shortly after midnight, came a first warning of the impending catastrophe, in the form of a series of earthquakes, the third of which shattered many houses, destroyed some poorly built walls, and played great havoc among bottles and earthenware. This earthquake was generally felt on the whole Costa Rican plateau. On the following days smaller shocks, mostly of intensity III to V (Riedel and Ford scale) followed at the rate of some three to eight a day. The population in Cartago and San José became alarmed, and erected in the streets and public parks ladders and sheds, in which they slept. The

#### HOW TO ACT IN CASE OF FIRE.

BY HENRY COLLIER.

Perhaps no single speculation is capable of producing so instantaneous and so widespread an alarm as the cry of "Fire!" Nor is this surprising when we remember that the fire fund is each year responsible for an almost incalculable loss, both of life and of property.

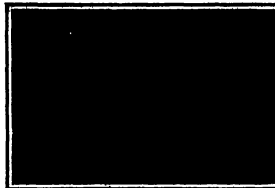
Yours of all emergencies, none more than an outbreak of the imperatively demands a preservation of one's power to act with coolness and decision. Often, by prompt and well-directed action, the threatened catastrophe may be averted, the loss of property and what is still more important, the loss of human life, may be avoided.

Fire drill nowadays has its place in the routine of every well-conducted scholastic establishment, nor can it be doubted that the capacity for prompt and intelligent action thus inculcated in the minds of young people of both sexes has, in emergency, proved the means of preventing appalling disaster. But while this capacity for combined action is very desirable, there seems to be a danger of fostering it at the expense of what one may term "fire education." Every child should be taught by means of precept

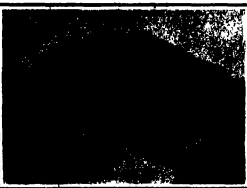
tor's head, but the carbonic-acid gas with which the water is charged helps to smother the flames.

How to act for one's safety, or to assist another, in the case of burning clothing cannot be better told than in the words of Prof. John Marshall. He says: "If the dress of a woman catches fire, she should at once lie down on the floor, and should (crawl) in this position either to a bell pull or a door, and call for assistance, or she should run to a blanket in a rug or blanket. In the event of a man rendering help he should at once lay the patient down take off his coat and roll her in it, unless he can obtain a blanket or rug or roll her on the carpet. If a woman renders assistance, she must be careful not to allow her own clothing to touch the victim, but to hold a rug or blanket in front of herself while approaching the flames."

Prompt action without trachurus or self-balking hurry, is the keynote of success in fighting the firebrand. This applies especially to those who wake from sleep to find the house on fire. Not a moment should be lost, but there should be no wild rushing from a window to a door and back again. First an attempt should be made to get down the stairs. Escape through passages filled with suffocating smoke, the a



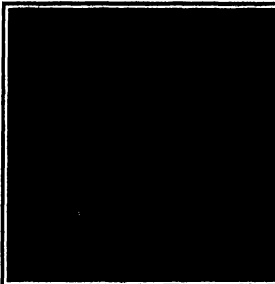
Blowing off from overturned lamp extinguished by use of floor.



To avoid drawing burnt or scalded limb from clothing cut apparel away with sharp scissors.



Manner of tying sheets, etc., together to form an escape rope.



Crawling method of escape from passages filled with smoke. Handkerchief holds wet sponge in place.



A siphon makes a handy and an efficient fire extinguisher.



Method of using knotted blanket or sheet rope for escape by windows.

#### HOW TO ACT IN CASE OF FIRE.

shocks had somewhat decreased in number and intensity when the fatal time came.

Cartago is situated at an altitude of 4,700 feet, at the very foot of the huge volcano Irazu, which towers 11,500 feet above sea level. The Irazu volcano is considered as extinct, the only remnant of its former activity being a few fumaroles or steam jets, located at a considerable distance from the now silent and cold crater. At no time before or after the catastrophe have the fumaroles shown any evidence of increased activity. Moreover, the seismograph in Cartago gave for most earthquakes a direction which was almost perpendicular to that of the volcano. However, a few days before the destructive shock, the direction of the earthquakes became variable, and for some of them coincided with that of the Irazu. On May 4th the needle of the apparatus began writing the last chapter of the drama, and while so doing jumped six several times from the glass plate. Then the seismograph, which is a heavy inverted pendulum contained in a box some three feet high, was violently thrown against the wall; the glass plate fell from its shelf, and was broken in two.

Among the public buildings which are in ruins is the beautiful Palace of Poes, a gift of Mr. Andrew Carnegie. The palace had just been completed, the finishing work being left unfinished.

and experiment, what to do when a fire breaks out in his own house. He should be instructed how to go to work coolly and methodically either to extinguish the flames, or—if necessary—to escape from the building. Lessons of this kind, imparted by practical methods, would become a source of strength in after life and would go far to check the recurrence of fire, out breaks, with their untold loss of life and capital.

Take, for example, the case of an overturned oil lamp. There is a sudden and alarming blaze, but if action is taken at once, the damage may be confined to the carpet, cloth or what not upon which the lamp actually lies. To throw water on the conflagration is useless. The burning oil will only be forced into a larger area. The aim should be to absorb the oil and smother the flame as much as possible, and this may best be done by means of some non-flammable powder—such as flour, sand, earth from the garden or anything of the kind.

Another point worth remembering is the use of the soda-water siphon as an extinguisher. Suppose that a lamp or candle has ignited a curtain and that the flame has run up the fabric. A siphon of soda water held as shown in the accompanying photograph, and squirted over the flames, will work wonders. Not only does the force with which the liquid leaves the siphon allow of its being directed well above the opera-

tor handkerchief over the mouth and nose, then crawl on the hands and knees, for the smoke tends to rise with the hot air and will be less dense close to the floor.

But if the whole of the lower part of the house is burning and escape by means of the stairs is impossible, preparations must be made for leaving through the window. To all the sheets and blankets top by means of "reef knots" which will not slip no matter how much strain is put upon them. Then drop the bedding or mattress from the window in event that there may be some kind of break in the event of a possible fall. Finally make one end of your iron provided fire-escape fast to the bedpost from the other end from the window, and after making sure that it reaches to or almost to, the ground go down it boldly hand over hand. It should be added that in the case of inexperienced persons there is always considerable risk of a dangerous fall resulting from this means of exit, therefore it should be undertaken only when all other means of escape have failed.

In conclusion a few words may be added respecting the treatment of burns and scalds prior to the arrival of a doctor. The main point to bear in mind is that the air is to be excluded from the affected part as quickly as possible. This may be done by

(Continued on page 441)

## THE HEAVENS IN JUNE

BY HENRY NORRIS RUSSELL, PH.D.



UNE, though less exciting from an astronomical standpoint than May, is still a month of more than usual interest.

Halley's comet will, of course, still be the main object of attention. At the beginning of the month it is excellently placed for observation, about midway between Regulus and Alpha ( $\alpha$ ) Hydrae. On a dark sky, setting after 11 P. M. it will however be much less conspicuous than the week before, and will seem to shrink and fade rapidly as it recedes from us. Its distance on the 1st is about fifty million miles, and this increases steadily, at the rate of three and one-half million miles a day—to which the earth's motion in one direction contributes about one and one-half million miles, and the comet's motion in the opposite direction the remainder.

Its apparent motion in the sky is slow, for it is moving almost directly away from us. It still travels eastward and southward among the stars, continuing the line of its earlier path but very much more slowly, covering only 13 deg during June, and 5 deg during July.

During the first ten days of the month it will still be a fine naked-eye object. Then the new moon will begin to flood the evening sky with light, and drown it out. By the time she is out of the way again the comet will be 125 million miles from us, and equally far from the sun, so that little can be seen of it without a field-glass. With the aid of the latter it can probably be followed all through the month.

The display which this comet has given us during May is probably the finest of the last fifty years.

Curiously enough, its only rival in the last quarter-century is the great comet which appeared so unexpectedly last January. This was at no time much brighter than Halley's comet (owing to its close approach to the sun) but its tail was not so long and it was too deep in the evening twilight to be seen to the best advantage.

Daniel's comet of 1807, though intrinsically of about the same magnitude as Halley's comet, was never within fifty million miles of the earth, and so never afforded nearly as fine a spectacle.

That of this is a long barren interval. The last previous comet which was at all conspicuous to the naked-eye was the great one of 1832. This was one of the grandest on record, and had a tail over 100 million miles in length, but this was directed almost away from the earth, so that it never looked more than 25 deg long—as against over 80 deg for Halley's comet before it left the morning sky. Before this comet (Vogel's comet of 1874, with a tail of 80 deg long but the last one) fully comparable in appearance with our visitor of this year, is the great comet of 1861, whose tail was at one time 120 deg in apparent length. As in the present case, the earth passed through its tail without any sensible effects other than a general illumination of the sky on the night of passage. Three years earlier, in 1858, appeared Donati's comet by common consent the finest of the last half of the nineteenth century.

Several of these comets, especially that of 1852, were really much larger affairs than Halley's, but the very favorable circumstances of the present return make it comparable as a spectacle, with any of them, so far as can be judged from the records.

The last news at the moment of writing is that its

head proved perfectly transparent during its transit across the sun, and that its tail is so much curved in its own plane that the earth did not reach it till long after daybreak on the 19th. Before dawn this morning it was a magnificent object, extending from the eastern horizon half way across the sky, till it was lost in the Milky Way. Its total length up to the invisible head was fully 130 deg, according to observations here, and 140 deg as seen at the Lick Observatory a few hours later.

## THE HEAVENS

As our marvelous visitor fades in the western heaven, we may turn once more to the old familiar constellations. In the north, below the Pole, is Camelopard, low on the horizon. Above her is Cepheus, and higher still the Little Bear, standing poised on its tail above the Pole. Between this and the Great Bear are the long coils of Draco. Our initial above the truly formidable aspect of this monster, whose form, coils and all, can be traced with decided likeness among the

the Crow and Cap rising upon its back. She sends far down below Virgo, are many of the stars of the Centaur and the Wolf. Observe in low latitudes, near the tropic, can see below these the two brightest stars of the constellation which, though among the most brilliant in the heavens, have no Greek, Latin, or Arabic names, being too far south to be known to the ancients. The easternmost of the two, Alpha Centauri, is known to all students of astronomy as our nearest neighbor in the heavens—only half as far away as Sirius, which, so far as is now known, is next best.

Further east, and best seen a little earlier in the evening, is the Southern Cross.

Leo, in the west, and Cancer and Gemini below, complete our list. This region of the sky will be the clearest watched of all during the month, for the comet is there.

## THE PLANETS

Mercury is morning star all through the month, being best observable about the time of his greatest elongation on the 19th, but as he is then south of the sun, and rises little more than an hour before him, the greatest opportunity is unfavorable.

Venus is likewise a morning star, rising before 3 A. M. and very conspicuous.

Mars is an evening star in Gemini and Cancer, setting more than two hours after than the sun. Jupiter is in Virgo, visible all the evening. He is in quadrature on the 23d, and comes to the meridian at 6 P. M.

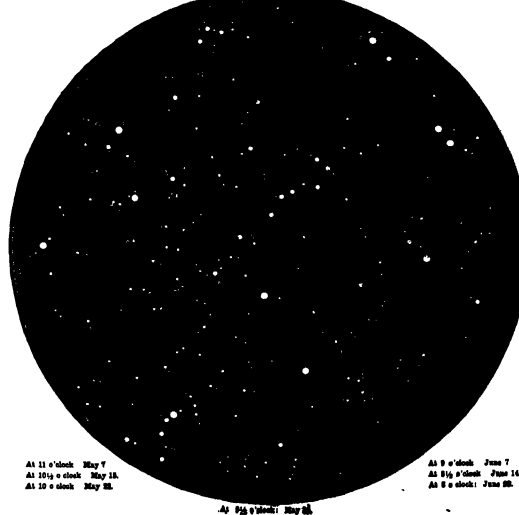
Saturn is morning star in Aries, rising about 2 A. M. in the middle of the month. On the morning of the 5th he is in extremely close conjunction with Venus, the two being only four minutes or less apart—too close to be separated by the unaided eye. Unfortunately, the closest approach is at about 9 A. M. by eastern standard time, when the planets are invisible in the daylight, and they will be about a quarter of a degree apart at 3 A. M., when we can last see them. Observe on the Pacific coast will be able to follow them until they are almost too close to be separated by the eye.

Uranus is in Sagittarius, and crosses the meridian about 3 A. M. in the middle of the month.

Neptune is in Gemini, too near the sun to be observed. The moon is new at 3 A. M. on the 7th, in her first quarter at 11 A. M. on the 14th, full at 3 P. M. on the 22d, and in her last quarter at 11 P. M. on the 29th. She is nearest the earth on the 23d, and furthest away on the 18th. In her course around the heavens she passes Venus and Saturn on the morning of the 6th, very closely. These conjunctions, the start of the planets two days later, happen after the mid have risen for the Eastern States, but will be of interest to western observers.

Besides these, she passes Mercury on the 6th, Neptune on the 30th, Saturn on the 11th, Jupiter on the 15th, and Uranus on the 24th, none of them deeply.

By the addition of meteors to those we can see, it is possible to obtain a mixture in the sky of a premier, which contains, say, per cent 20 meteor, 20 per cent the characteristic objects of the sun, 20 per cent, and 40 per cent in ordinary and ordinary. The observer of the second pound formed was not commonly expected by the eye recently. It is very probable that it is not a meteor, but a small meteor, for the 20 per cent is treated in meteorology as a meteor, for the 20 per cent with the 20 per cent of the 20 per cent.



NIGHT SKY: MAY AND JUNE.

At 11 o'clock May 7  
At 10 o'clock May 14  
At 10 o'clock May 21

At 10 o'clock May 21

At 9 o'clock June 7  
At 10 o'clock June 14  
At 8 o'clock June 21

stars themselves. The two bright stars  $\beta$  and  $\gamma$  in the Dragon's head are very conspicuous. A. Two others, of which only one is shown on the map, make up with these an irregular quadrilateral. The faintest star of this,  $\nu$  Draconis, is an interesting double, separable with a field-glass of high power—the distance of the components being almost exactly one minute of arc. The star  $\alpha$  Draconis, about midway between the bowl of the Little Dipper and the end of the handle of the Great Dipper, is noteworthy as the pole-star of the ancient Egyptians. About the year 3500 B. C. the celestial pole, in the course of its precessional motion, passed very near this star, so that it held the same place in the heavens then that Polaris does to-day.

In the northeast we see the great cross of Cygnus, and the brilliant Vega, and due east Altair has just risen. Higher up is Hercules, and north of him Ophiuchus, entangled with the Serpent which he carries. Below is right overhead, Antares being some 20 deg. south of the zenith. Low in the southeast is Scorpio, not yet fully risen. On the right and above is the magnificent group of Lyrae, and the extensive one of Virgo, now brightened up by Jupiter, in the southwest. Below this, all along the sky from west to east, stretches the mighty length of Hydra, with

The road material laboratory was established in December, 1900 and from that time until November 30th, 1908 3 018 samples of road material were tested from practically every State in the Union. The results of tests made up to January 1st, 1908 and a brief description of the present methods of making routine tests are shown on Form No. 28



# NEW TWO-CYCLE MOTORS

## DEFECTS OF THE TWO-CYCLE ENGINE AND HOW THEY ARE OVERCOME

A belief is growing among gas engine experts that the greatest improvements in gas and gasoline motors must come in the future from some type of engine which gets increased power from its cylinders by eliminating the idle revolution of the four-cycle type. It is conceded that four-cycle design has practically reached the limit of its possibilities; the advent of the automobile having drawn the services of the brightest men in the gas engine field, the result of whose work is seen today in the splendid examples of gas engines found in even the cheapest kind of automobiles. However many designers feel as was expressed by one prominent engineer, that "it is inconceivable that the four-stroke cycle with its small utilization of one-half of the piston stroke will be accepted as the finality of development, the two-stroke cycle as now applied is equally unsatisfying for reasons that are familiar to all students of the question."

It is apparent that the chief efforts toward improvement are now being made with a view to eliminating the defects herebefore common to the two-cycle type. The chief defects of the usual two-cycle engine may be summed up as follows:

1 The explosive mixture is taken into the crank case resulting in leakage and in possible explosions in the base.

2 The new charge comes into direct contact with the hot burned gases, causing possible pre-ignition and some loss of gas at the exhaust.

3 The charge is not large enough in volume because the crank case is an altogether inefficient compressor on account of its very large clearance. This means a small charge and also a large percentage of dead air left in the cylinder.

4 The power is not increased materially by the double number of explosions because of the weak charges and poor economy.

Several recent two-cycle engines meet these defects in different ways. The Newcomb engine was recently exhibited before the Automobile Club of America. This is a two-cycle engine using the crank case to supply air only. This air blows out the previous charge and furnishes oxygen to burn the next charge of fuel. The fuel is injected directly into the cylinder from a plunger pump, the quantity being controlled by rear latching the stroke of the pump. The gasoline is directed downward into a small cup at the head of the piston. When the piston rises this cup or pocket is in the vicinity of the spark plug so that there is always an ignitable mixture near the plug even when running on very light load. This arrangement avoids several of the defects of ordinary two-cycle engines. The charge is limited, however by the amount of air which can be supplied from the crank case, which would scarcely exceed 75 per cent of the displacement of the piston, leaving the other 25 per cent and the clearance space filled with burned gas. This engine will undoubtedly be more powerful, economical, and reliable than the ordinary two-cycle motor.

Another improved type of two-cycle engine is that employing a differential piston. This engine leaves out the crank case entirely as a means of supplying



Fig. 1.—Short two cycle motor.

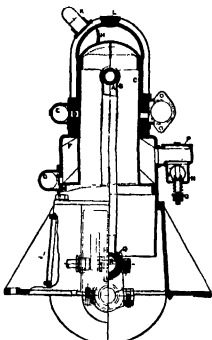


Fig. 2.—Longitudinal section through the Bruderkick two-cycle motor

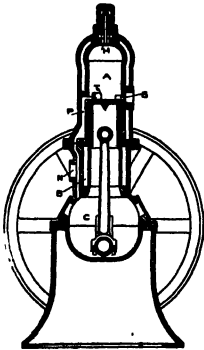


Fig. 4.—Section of Dawley engine.

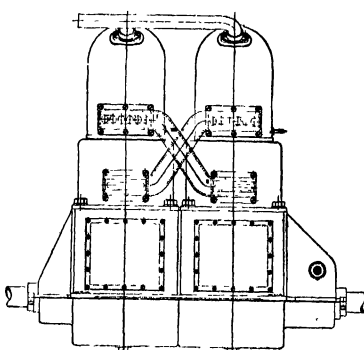


Fig. 3.—Side elevation of Bruderkick two-cycle acromantic motor.

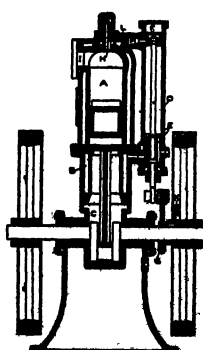


Fig. 5.—Section of Dawley engine.

the charge or air and compresses the charge partially in an annular chamber formed by a differential or two-diameter piston. Two cylinders are worked together on the lower piston of one compressing the charge for the other. This permits getting a full charge and large capacity, though the loss of fuel through the exhaust is likely to be greater. The burning loss and base firing are eliminated. This type of motor is used on the Elmore automobile and a light-weight engine weighing but 3½ pounds per horse-power and constructed after the design of J. W. Bruderkick now being manufactured for aeroplanes and other aeronautic purposes.

A good idea of the method of operation of this motor can be had from the diagrams we reproduce. The cross-section of one of the cylinders shows the large compressor piston on the lower end and of the working piston *C*. On the down stroke the large piston draws in a charge of gas from the carburetor through the automatic inlet valve *M*. On the up stroke it compresses this charge in the chamber *P* above it and in the pipe *O* leading across to the inlet port of the second cylinder. Just before the piston of the second cylinder opens the exhaust port, it uncovers the inlet port *D* and the charge compressed in the transfer pipe *O* *E* leading from cylinder one to cylinder two, passes into the cylinder and is directed upward by the deflector *H*. In the motor shown, the connecting rods *A* are of steel tubing for the purpose of saving weight. The spark plugs are located in the dome-shaped cylinder heads, where they are most effective in igniting the mixture. This type of two-cycle motor offers the advantage that there is no possibility of leakage of the initial compression after the crankshaft bearings have become worn, and there is no necessity of making these bearings heavier and longer than usual for the prevention of undue wear. Neither is there any trouble from back fire in the crank case, which sometimes cause serious damage.

The new cycle motor is a recent invention of C. A. Dawley, member of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers. This engine has some features of both of those described above. It uses a differential piston and handles the charge in an annular chamber, but it also compresses air in the crank case. Owing to the enlarged diameter of the piston in the crank case, the air supply is in excess of the piston displacement. The air displaces the exhaust and scavenges the cylinder before the new charge is admitted. The admission of the new charge is controlled by the valve *P* in Fig. 5, and the timing is such as to introduce the charge after the cylinder is cleared of burned gases, but before compression commences. This evidently will give a full charge of air and fuel and prevent any loss of fuel or premature ignition. When used on gasoline this engine may use a carburetor, in which case an extra rich mixture would be drawn into chamber *B*, while the additional air required for combustion would come from the crank case. Or a fuel pump may be used as in the Newcomb engine, except that in this case the gasoline would be delivered into port *M* and then blown into the cylinder by the charge of

(Continued on page 446)

# The Home Laboratory

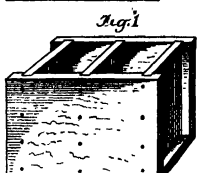
## A BOTTLE AND READY GALVANIC BATTERY.

The best battery for experimental work in the workshop or laboratory is one of the rough-and-ready type that will give a moderate current of electricity of any three or four ampere with an electromotive force of 1.5 to 2 volts. Such a battery is suited for the exciting of a powerful electromagnet, for magnetizing purposes, operating an induction coil, and for electroplating, electro brassing, or electro coppering either by the hot or cold process, and for electro lighting. The following description will enable anyone who can handle woodworking tools to construct such a battery consisting of two cells capable of being coupled so as to give the current of one large cell or in series so as to yield the current of one cell and the electromotive force of two. This latter plan is the one best suited for coppering, brassing or electroplating. This type of battery has been used, and is still used by the writer for all the purposes mentioned, for over five years, so it has been put well to the test of experience.

The wood used in making the battery must be thoroughly well seasoned. An old board that has been kept years in an office or loft will prove to be just the thing required. The board should be 1 inch thick. Cut a strip 5 feet long and 8 inches wide. Plane this smooth all over and then cut three pieces 13 1/2 inches long, and three pieces 5 1/2 inches long. The latter will form the ends and central division of the battery. The side pieces must be grooved so as to receive these pieces with a very nice fitting joint as shown in Fig. 1. The bottom piece must be made as shown in Fig. 2, with two pieces of wood cut exactly 5 inches square, this also being the inside measurement of each cell. These squares must be held in place by means of screws that are inserted from the underside of the bottom board and penetrate to within 1/4 inch of the outer surface of the squares. They should also be coated with a thick shellac varnish (not glue) before being fastened in place. The grooves in the side pieces and the ends of the division pieces must also be well coated with thick shellac varnish, after which the pieces should be driven tightly together and held by nails or screws. Nails driven diagonally make the best job because they will draw the woodwork together more firmly than screws, and resist direct strain better. The object of using shellac is to insure a perfect acid proof joint, and the 5-inch square pieces when pressed into position form a bottom so firm that no acid liquid will penetrate.

When the battery has been put together it must be lined on the inside with a coating of burning hot pitch. Use an old sawpan to melt the pitch in. Pour some into one of the cells and tilt the battery first one side then another until all four sides have been submitted to the hot pitch. Pour the pitch back into the sawpan, take a strip of square or flat iron, make one end red hot, and press this wire into the corners and around the joints at the bottom, so as to secure

brass battery clamps to these with a strip of sheet copper folded over the top of the carbon block. This is an important item. Its use will protect the brass clamp from being corroded by the acids. The zinc cylinders can be purchased with a copper strip and binding screw attached. The zinc cylinders must be amalgamated by dipping them into sulphuric acid 1 part, water 8 parts, and then rubbing all over inside and outside with quicksilver. Place these zincs in the wooden vessel. Make up a mixture of sulphuric acid 1 pint, water 8 pints in a stoneware pitcher, and allow it to become cold. In another vessel make a mixture of water 4 pints, bicarbonate of sodium or potas-



A BOTTLE AND READY GALVANIC BATTERY

sium 12 ounces sulphuric acid half a pint. Allow this also to become cold. The battery is now charged by pouring the bicarbonate mixture into the porous pots, around the carbon blocks, and then pouring the sulphuric acid mixture into the outside space and the zinc cylinders. The battery is now ready for any purpose required and will keep in good action for about six hours continuously. When not in use the zinc cylinders must be removed and placed in a stoneware cask filled with water, and the bicarbonate mixture must be returned to the vessel it was made in. The carbon block can also be stood on end and upon blotting paper or in a wide-mouthed pitcher bottle. The sulphuric acid mixture can be allowed to remain in the wooden battery cells. For intermittent use such a battery will work well for months and most every requirement for small work, either in the workshop or laboratory. No amount of hard use will injure it, if well put together as described. No acid solutions will affect it, although the liquid may be left in the cells year in and year out.

## SALT CARBONATE TANKS

as in F. H. WATSON

As gasoline vapor with air (accidentally ignited, of course) I think the air in a gasoline tank could well be replaced either by water or a non-oxidizing gas such as carbon dioxide, after the manner here illustrated.

In the first two designs water is used in Fig. 1 the weight of the water forces the gasoline out of the lower tank through the stopcock B. The valve C is so constructed that it floats when the water reaches it, closes the opening, and thus prevents the water from flowing out. To refill the tank with gasoline, a suction pump is connected to the stopcock A and the gasoline is siphoned into the lower compartment through the stopcock B. The latter prevents the gasoline from escaping.

Fig. 2 is practically the same as Fig. 1, but to discharge the gasoline through the stopcock B air must be pumped into the lower part to force the water into the gasoline tank above. To refill this tank with gasoline, the stopcock at A is opened, letting the air out and the weight of the water then siphons the gasoline into the tank above through the valve and stopcock B.

In Fig. 3 a carbon dioxide tank is connected to the pipe A and the pressure of the gas then forces the gasoline out through the stopcock B. The valve C prevents the water from escaping into the gasoline tank through the stopcock B. To refill this tank, the stopcock

A is closed and stopcock D is opened, and the water flowing out through the latter will draw the gasoline into the tank through stopcock H. The valve H is adjusted to sink in gasoline and thus closes the outlet, preventing escape of gasoline through the stopcock D.

## PLUG CONNECTOR

To make a plug connector for use in an electric light socket, all that is required is a burned out incandescent lamp and a number of feet of heavy lamp cord. Break the glass globe out of the lamp, leaving only the base. Then break away the glass tube that protects the leading in wires, being careful not to injure them. Now untwist about a foot of the lamp cord, scrape the ends clean and slip a short length of rubber tubing over each end. Solder the ends to the leading in wires in the lamp base and then push the rubber tubes down over the joints. Fill the socket with plaster of Paris, letting it project up above the top of the plug about an inch so as to form an insulated top to screw the plug in by. This plug connector is suitable for small motors, portable lamps, and any other apparatus that draws only a small current. It cannot be used for large currents as the heavy current would fuse the leading-in wires in the plug.

## A SIMPLE APPARATUS FOR EMPTYING CARBOTS

as in F. H. WATSON

A very simple, effective, and easily set up apparatus for emptying carbots of acid may be made in the following way from materials found in every laboratory. This will be found to be far superior to the acid pump or the old-fashioned method of siphoning the carboy, catching the liquid in a jug, and then pouring it into bottles. For no fumes can escape, and this is an important factor when dealing with strong ammonia or hydrochloric acid (spirits of salts).

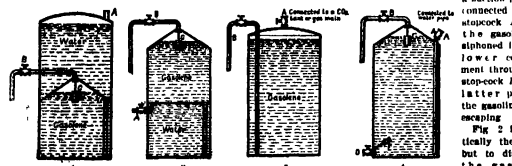
Buy one wishes to fill with hydrochloric acid or another liquid any number of bottles from a carboy. Fill every one of the bottles with two or three inches of water and then through a hole put a piece of glass tubing bent in the form of a right angle with sides about three inches long. Connect one piece of glass tubing in one bottle to another piece in another bottle. It is with a small piece of rubber tubing the free piece of this bottle with another piece in another bottle and so on until you have all the bottles connected up in one straight line.

Connect the free tube at one end of the line with a piece of rubber tubing to a long bent glass tube passing to the bottom of the carboy.

Attach the other free tube at the other end of the row of bottles to a glass filter pump or any other suction apparatus with a piece of thick-walled rubber tubing. Then we have the apparatus as illustrated herewith.

Turn on the water tap connected with the filter pump and the acid will be drawn up the tube leading from the carboy and into the first bottle. As soon as this is filled the acid will run into the second bottle, and so on until the carboy is empty or the requisite number of bottles are filled.

If one hasn't many corks all that is necessary is to fill say three or four bottles. When these are filled they may be disconnected and others put in their place. But it must not be forgotten to turn off the water tap and stop the flow of liquid before making the change.



SIMPLE METHODS OF MAKING GASOLINE TANKS SAFE.

a perfect coating of pitch at these joints. Now pour the hot pitch into the cell again so as to be sure that all parts are well covered. Treat the second cell in this manner. Repeat the operation until the pitch is thick outside by giving it two coats of shellac varnish mixed with creosote (oxide of iron). This pitch will resist the acid solution used in the cells and give quite a safe tank. To complete the battery procure two zinc cylinders 7 inches high, 3/4 inch inside diameter, and 1/2 inch thick. Also procure two zinc plates 2 inches diameter and 1/2 inch thick. Also procure two zinc plates 2 inches diameter and 1/2 inch thick. Also procure two zinc plates 2 inches diameter and 1/2 inch thick. Also procure two zinc plates 2 inches diameter and 1/2 inch thick. Attach two

be pumped into the lower part to force the water into the gasoline tank above. To refill this tank with gasoline, the stopcock at A is opened, letting the air out and the weight of the water then siphons the gasoline into the tank above through the valve and stopcock B.

In Fig. 3 a carbon dioxide tank is connected to the pipe A and the pressure of the gas then forces the gasoline out through the stopcock B. The valve C prevents the water from escaping into the gasoline tank through the stopcock B. To refill this tank, the stopcock

In Fig. 4 the stopcock A is connected to the water main or pipe when the pressure of the water forces the gasoline out through the stopcock B. The valve C prevents the water from escaping into the gasoline tank through the stopcock B. To refill this tank, the stopcock



APPARATUS FOR EMPTYING CARBOTS

If the liquid in the carboy is sulphuric acid (oil of vitriol) or any other liquid that attacks rubber the two bent tubes connecting bottle to bottle may be made in one piece and if care is taken to push the ends of the tubes below the end of the corks the liquid will reach up to them and so they will not be hurt in the slightest. In fact no rubber connections may be made use of except from the suction pump to one end of the line of bottles though, of course it is more convenient to use them.

A glass filter pump is the best to use because any fumes that may perhaps come over have no direct effect on it, as they would have on a metal one.



Almirante L. Aramburzu .. .

[illegible]





with the dry sand. When the sun was tried in broad daylight with the crew open, this flickering sensation still persisted. The blue light, which was visible only in the dark, appeared to be brighter near the wire than in the center.

#### How to Ache in Case of Fire.

(Concluded from page 449.)  
dredging the part thickly with flour—if the skin is not broken—and not disturbing it for some time.

Any vegetable oil—such as salad, sweet, or lard—may be used with advantage, a rag being soaked with it and held to cover the wound. A very good application is made by mixing equal parts of linseed oil and lime water, forming "carroll oil."

Finally, it cannot be too strongly impressed that all clothing covering a burn must be removed with the utmost care. Never try to withdraw the injured limb, but cut the clothing away in small pieces, if necessary—so that the exposed surface may not be more damaged. Never hold a burn in front of the fire, according to the popular practice, this only increases the injury. It is well to apply cold water, or better still, or other application ready for immediate use as soon as the clothing has been removed.

#### Pontesale's Theory of Comets.

The idea of comets coming to the great glass lenses, which concentrate the sun's rays into luminous cones which appear as the comet's tails, is so natural that its origin cannot be traced. It was indicated by the philosopher Seneca, about the commencement of the Christian era, but it has been abandoned as a measureless error with the example of Kepler, who after first embracing this doctrine with enthusiasm, renounced it on discovering that a large comet, which he had supposed to obscure, possessed a curved tail. The impossibility of explaining this phenomenon, at a time when it was not known that light comes in a measurable time in traversing interplanetary space—caused Kepler to abandon the idea. The celebrated Fontenelle, regardless of this objection, took up the idea of the luminous theory of comets in an admirable manner in his "Plurality of Worlds." The coming of Halley's and several other comets has enabled Wilfrid de Pourville to recall the attention of the French Academy to Fontenelle's theory and the arguments which may be brought forward in its favor. At present, on the coast of every civilized country, phenomena similar to those to which Fontenelle attributed the formation of the tails of comets, are produced by the lanterns of lighthouses. The dust which is suspended in the atmosphere is illuminated by the beam of light as Fontenelle supposed the comet to be illuminated by the concentrated beam of sunlight behind the lentil-comet. De Pourville shows that this theory explains the individual peculiarities of comets, and is confirmed by observations made recently at the Paris and Greenwich observatories. For example, a division of the tail is explained by assuming that the cloud of cometary dust is not continuous, but intermittent, and the occasional sudden appearance of bright points indicates the existence of reflecting bodies of considerable size. In a word, all the variations which are observed in meteoric showers might on this theory be expected to occur in the tails of comets. The evidence of the spectroscopic and the tracks of Morehouse's and Halley's comets are against this lentil-comet theory.

Barometers of the United States Geological Survey estimate the annual damage by floods in the United States at \$100,000,000. It is too sorry, perhaps, to undertake to prevent or to diminish this enormous loss, but its very magnitude invites a serious study of means of prevention, and the recent misfortune of France may lead to practical work that will serve as an object lesson to America.

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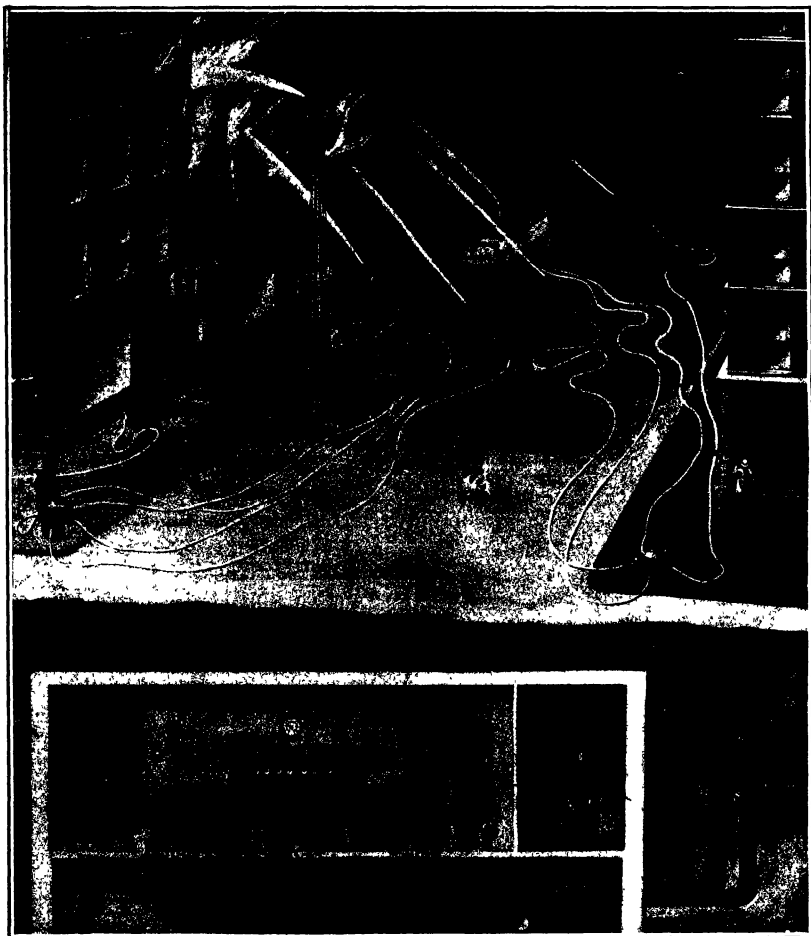
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Notice of a fire comes to the operator at telephone (see view of pumping station), who instructs engine room crew by means of marine telegraph. The engine at an airboard starts electric pumps, which draw water from the water main at the river, and deliver it through hoses in the district in which fire rages. The chief at the fire is in touch with station operator through special telephone wire.

FIRE FIGHTING WITHOUT FIRE ENGINES.—[See page 455.]

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NEW YORK, SATURDAY, JAN 10, 1914

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## WHAT WILL THE REMAINS OF THE "MAINE" DISCLOSE?

THE action of Congress in passing a bill making an inquiry into the cause of the disaster, is a preliminary acknowledgment for the work of raising the wreck of the Maine is, for several reasons highly commendable. Chief among these is the opportunity which is afforded to give to the world a full and complete account of the disaster to the bodies of the unfortunate men, who were carried down in the wreck of the ship, and have not since been recovered. The bill also provides for the recovery of the bodies of the men who were carried down in the wreck of the ship, and have not since been recovered. The bill also provides for the recovery of the bodies of the men who were carried down in the wreck of the ship, and have not since been recovered.

Second only in importance to the above considerations are those which affect the stability, and particularly the power, of the European power with whom we are at peace and hope to continue our friendly understanding. It is a fact that the Spanish government felt very keenly the implication that the destruction of the Maine was brought about by Spanish negligence. The Spanish government felt very keenly the implication that the destruction of the Maine was brought about by Spanish negligence. The Spanish government felt very keenly the implication that the destruction of the Maine was brought about by Spanish negligence.

Now, although our Navy Department did not then and does not now believe that the Spanish officials were in any way concerned in the disaster, attributing the explosion to the hatred of fanatics it is doubtful if this opinion was shared, or is even yet held, by the majority of people in the United States. Therefore the raising of the wreck of the Maine is a work which will do much to clear up the confusion and doubt which still exists in the public mind. It is a work which will do much to clear up the confusion and doubt which still exists in the public mind. It is a work which will do much to clear up the confusion and doubt which still exists in the public mind.

It would be a consummation devoutly to be wished if the raising of the wreck of the Maine would give us a more complete and accurate picture of the disaster than we have at present. It would be a consummation devoutly to be wished if the raising of the wreck of the Maine would give us a more complete and accurate picture of the disaster than we have at present. It would be a consummation devoutly to be wished if the raising of the wreck of the Maine would give us a more complete and accurate picture of the disaster than we have at present.

Now, if this occurred, the tearing manner of the protective deck and the blowing out of the sides of

the vessel, accompanied by the instant flooding of the portion of the ship forward of the explosion, would have caused the weight of the ram bow, the anchors and anchor chain, to bend the forward portion downward. The ram was hanging vertically above the ship, held thereby only by the floor and keel plates. Then, as the main portion of the ship filled and sank, the bottom of the ship would naturally be folded down vertically against the ram, leaving the keel and the bow in the bottom in that peculiar, inverted position, which gives it the appearance of having been blown up by some powerful force acting from below.

If it be proved, therefore, that the explosion occurred in the bow, and that the water pumped out, it will be possible, in all probability, by a careful examination of the wrecked structure, to determine how far this theory is correct. If it be proved, therefore, that the explosion occurred in the bow, and that the water pumped out, it will be possible, in all probability, by a careful examination of the wrecked structure, to determine how far this theory is correct.

## REVIVAL OF THE ROTARY ENGINE

IN the introductory article of a series dealing with the rotary engine which was published in the year 1897 in the *Scientific American* (Vol. XXII, No. 1109, 1110, 1111), we said "The constant failure that has attended the efforts to produce a successful rotary engine, and the fact that the direct-acting crank and rod, relieving engine has retained full possession of the field, have led many people to suppose that the rotary engine inventor is as visionary a dreamer as the would-be inventor of perpetual motion. As a matter of fact, however, many of the objects aimed at in the first device are, as legitimate and useful as some of the latter are absurd and impossible. While the supposed advantages of a rotary engine, as outlined below, have proved very attractive to the inventor, the results of careful comparison tests have shown that except in the case of rotary impact engines or steam turbines, the rotary engine does not compare in efficiency with the ordinary reciprocating type. Now it would certainly seem that with such theoretical and practical mechanical features in its favor, the rotary engine would be a formidable rival to the standard type. But this it has never done, and for the very practical reason that owing to the peculiarities of construction, it is difficult to secure an economical regulation of the steam supply, and it is impossible to keep the joints steam tight and prevent irregular wear of the parts. The wear of the piston is always great at the circumference of the cylinder, decreasing toward the center of the cylinder, creating toward the center of the cylinder a structural defect, which is the cause of the mechanical failure. The packing device that bears against the circumference of the cylinder, like the piston, wears at the circumference, and the engine soon becomes so worn that it is impossible to keep it in service. There is a further difficulty in the fact that in rotary engines that have not any admission port, the steam pressure produces a rapid side wear on the shaft, and renders it difficult to keep the stuffing box steam tight. Another difficulty is experienced with the valve gear, which in the great majority of rotary engines is of the reciprocating type. Reciprocations which would involve no serious wear at a moderate speed become serious at the enormous speeds of the rotary engine, and produce rapid wear of the parts."

Such was the situation in the rotary engine field about a dozen years ago. The difficulties were of a practical nature, and it was not until the advantages of the type were highly attractive and never disputed. We remember asking the late George M. Hopkins, a mechanical engineer of exceptional constructive ability, who had devoted a large amount of effort to the problem, what he thought was the prospect for the production of a successful motor of this type. He expressed the opinion that the large steam leak would be a serious obstacle, and that the mechanical frictional joints coupled with the heavy rotating masses, to say nothing of the rapid wearing out of the reciprocating valve movements had convinced him that no successful rotary could be built.

At the same time, however, it was pointed out that a rotary engine, to be successful must be absolutely rotary in all its parts and free from any reciprocating movements whatsoever, that the rubbing surfaces must be reduced to a minimum, if not altogether eliminated, that steam leakage must be greatly reduced; and that some mechanical means must be found for eliminating the losses on the main bearings due to the excessive application of the load. It was also pointed out that the rotary engine must be able to operate in spite of apparently insuperable difficulties. Inventors have struggled with the problem with that indomitable perseverance which is so frequently characteristic of the man who has the faith that he can make a rotary engine of twenty horse-power has been developed, which has shown its ability to perform steady

shop duty, day in and day out for over a year and a half, without exhibiting any signs of failure. References to the fact that the rotary engine, recently built at Stevens Institute, which has the subject of the present article as its basis, will be recognized, on a study of the drawings and description, that success has been achieved by meeting these very conditions of a mechanical machine, which the steam engine of the past has never been able to do. The tests at Stevens Institute and at the contractor's plant speak for themselves. It remains for the future to determine whether the rotary engine, as now built, is a new field of high-pressure, superheated steam, or, which, theoretically, it would seem to be admirably adapted

## THE GOVERNMENT AND THE INVENTOR

THE Commission on Patents has under consideration a bill introduced by Mr. Currier, the purpose of which is to enlarge the jurisdiction of the Court of Claims so that the Court may entertain suits against the United States for the infringement or unauthorized use of a patented invention in certain cases, and award reasonable compensation to the patentee.

The measure is necessary, when it is considered that under the English system, which prevails in this country as well as in England, a sovereign power cannot be sued without its own consent. The United States has established a regular tribunal, and charged it with the duty of adjudicating claims against the government, but the scope of its duties does not include the adjudication of an inventor's rights when the invention has been appropriated by his government.

When the government is the party in question, it is not a question of the right to appropriate, but of the right to appropriate. It is not a question of the right to appropriate, but of the right to appropriate. It is not a question of the right to appropriate, but of the right to appropriate. It is not a question of the right to appropriate, but of the right to appropriate.

For all that many inventors have spent years of their lives and practically bankrupted themselves in developing inventions primarily of use to the government, only to find that the government has appropriated the invention without compensation, and that the inventor has been practically defeated that they have no legal means of redress, and that the government department will not recognize the decisions of the courts. No doubt the government has the right to appropriate an invention necessary for the preservation of the national defense, yet appropriation having been made, it would seem that some compensation should be paid to the inventor. The measure is necessary, when it is considered that under the English system, which prevails in this country as well as in England, a sovereign power cannot be sued without its own consent. The United States has established a regular tribunal, and charged it with the duty of adjudicating claims against the government, but the scope of its duties does not include the adjudication of an inventor's rights when the invention has been appropriated by his government.

A similar measure was introduced by Congressman Dail in the closing days of the last Congress. The measure provided that the inventor should be paid a sum of money for the use of his invention by the government. It was not signed by the President. Mr. Currier's bill is practically the same as Mr. Dail's, with the exception that certain patents taken out by government officers or employees are excepted from the provisions of the bill. The measure is necessary, when it is considered that under the English system, which prevails in this country as well as in England, a sovereign power cannot be sued without its own consent. The United States has established a regular tribunal, and charged it with the duty of adjudicating claims against the government, but the scope of its duties does not include the adjudication of an inventor's rights when the invention has been appropriated by his government.

The experimental researches into the effect of electricity upon fog commenced by Sir Oliver Lodge in Liverpool, and continued by him in Birmingham, have now been continued by the Electrician and the Electrical Engineer, and it is not a modification of Sir Oliver's views on the subject, or any cessation of his interest. It is simply that the spot selected for the experiment, the expense incidental to the large, lofty buildings in Strand Street has failed to furnish the corpus site in the shape of fog to dissipate. There is a proposal to conduct a further experiment under Sir Oliver's supervision, and for the purpose of the experiment, the Electrician and the Electrical Engineer, and it is not a modification of Sir Oliver's views on the subject, or any cessation of his interest. It is simply that the spot selected for the experiment, the expense incidental to the large, lofty buildings in Strand Street has failed to furnish the corpus site in the shape of fog to dissipate.

ENGINEERING.

It is claimed by the contractors that a new record for the American flag has been accomplished on the Moccasin siphon of the New York City Canal siphon, where a shaft 16 feet 8 inches in diameter was sunk 177 feet in thirty-one days. The work was done in hard Hudson River soil.

In a recent government test over the measured mile course of Rockland, the new battleship "Michigan" covered the fastest mile out of twenty successive runs at a speed of 19.84 knots, which exceeds by more than half a knot the fastest made at the battleship's acceptance standardization trial.

The first of three concrete barges which will be used in the hydraulic operation at the Panama Canal was recently launched. It draws water complete with dredging pump, motor, and equipment, three feet nine inches. One-quarter-inch No. 12 wire mesh has been fixed in the wall construction. The behavior of these barges will be watched with great interest.

The Interstate Commerce Commission has recently ruled that, hereafter, on several railways in the Northwest, the upper berths in Pullman sleeping cars are to cost less than the lower berths. The Commission states that, in the past eleven years, the Pullman company has doubled its capitalization and dividends without the investment of any new capital.

The latest report of work on the New York State barge canal shows that this great undertaking is being pushed through with great rapidity. At present, time, 322.6 miles of the total work is under contract, additional plans have been completed for 48.2 miles, and the plans for another 36.4 miles are over seventy-five per cent completed. Having 4 miles, the plans of which are in progress.

With a view to determining whether or not the new type of shells will be deflected when striking at an angle, or whether they will burst, the plate, several of the new soft-nosed naval shells were fired from a 12-inch gun at the old ram "Katahdin," which was stricken from the navy list, and consigned to the scrap heap in July, 1907. The shells were deflected by the latest 12-inch armor plate, in sections arranged on the vessel at various angles.

An eyer bar made by the American Vanadium Company was recently tested to destruction by the American Bridge Company. The test bar, the plate, several of the new soft-nosed naval shells were fired from a 12-inch gun at the old ram "Katahdin," which was stricken from the navy list, and consigned to the scrap heap in July, 1907. The shells were deflected by the latest 12-inch armor plate, in sections arranged on the vessel at various angles.

Efficiency tests are conducted by officials of the Pennsylvania Railroad, who, at unusual times and places, set signals of caution or danger, display fuses, place torpedoes on the track, with a view to keeping all employees constantly on the alert for signals. During the tests for 1909, the following records were made by the men. Black signal light, 47.28, of which 99.6 per cent showed perfect observance on the part of the employees, 45.87 tests of rules governing flag men, use of fuses, torpedoes, and other signals, 99.6 per cent perfect. Altogether, some 30,000 efficiency tests showed a practically perfect record for the employees.

Acting in accordance with the Spooner act of June 25th, 1902, which states that "the President shall cause to be constructed such safe and commodious harbors at the termini of the Panama Canal as shall make such provisions for their defense, as may be necessary for the safety and protection of said canals and harbors." President Taft has asked for an appropriation of \$4,000,000 for the commencement of suitable fortifications. He indorses the report of a special board of officers of the army and navy, which provides, we understand, for an adequate defense by batteries mounting the new 14-inch gun. The total cost of the completed fortifications will be about \$15,000,000.

A most commendable movement in the anthracite region of northeastern Pennsylvania is the introduction of mine safety. In former days, the shop-smoking and "fustian" habits, still in mining, predominated in this district; but today work is done by a class of Europeans whose traditions and experience have nothing to do with mines. Several of the existing companies have established schools for the benefit of these employees, one of the first of which was that established by the Philadelphia & Reading Coal and Iron Company. Here, in attendance, are found the supervisors and foremen employed in the shops, and the mine workers. The course, which contains instruction and drawing, has special reference to the particular class of work in which the

ELECTRICITY.

In his presidential address before the American Electro-Chemical Society at Pittsburgh, Dr. Leo H. Bakeland stated that "the last hundred years, under the influence of the modern engineer and scientist, have done more for the betterment of the race than all the art, all the civilizing efforts, all the so-called literature of past ages, for which some respectable people want us to have such an exaggerated reverence."

The thirty-third convention of the National Electric Light Association, which met at St. Louis last week, reported a very prosperous year, in which \$2,900,000 were added, bringing the total membership up to 5,370. The association began in 1885, with a membership of only 71. There are 850 operating companies represented in the association, and this constitutes 90 per cent of the capitalization of the electric light industry in this country.

A new form of mercury-rod interrupter has been developed, with the object of producing a sharper break. It consists in covering the mercury with a quenching liquid. As the rod is withdrawn from the mercury, a bubble of vapor from the quenching liquid forms on the end of the rod and tends to press the mercury level suddenly downward at the break, thus effecting a more perfect current interruption, even though the rod may rise comparatively slowly from the mercury.

The New York Legislature has passed the bill which places telegraph and telephone companies of the State under the supervision of the Public Service Commission for the second district. The bill empowers the commission to investigate and regulate the rates of service. The companies are required to file the annual reports, and the Commission may veto any privileges under the franchise of the companies, which have not as yet been exercised. Reduced rates, passes, or transit for the transmission of messages are prohibited.

A novel ventilating system has recently been developed, which consists of a small electric fan connected to the window sill in such manner that it may be operated either to draw in air from the outside, or to exhaust the air from a room. It is suggested that the value of this will be appreciated in a kitchen on freezing day, or when any baking is being done, as it prevents the heat from spreading through the entire house, besides making the kitchen itself more comfortable to work in.

In order to determine the heat generated by continuous electrical hardening, the thermometers of the construction are to be imbedded in the concrete walls of the Gatun locks of the Panama Canal. Each thermometer consists of an iron cup in which is a resistance thermometer, the resistance is connected by a pair of lead-insulated copper wires to an indicating instrument and a small storage battery. Variations in the temperature of the coil produce variations in the electrical resistance, and these indicated on the instrument, which is calibrated to show degrees of temperature. The instrument keeps a continuous record, which should prove of considerable scientific interest and importance.

It is a difficult matter to measure very high tensions of electrostatic or Wimshurst machines, owing to the glow discharge which is apt to occur above 40,000 volts. A new method has been adopted by Prof. C. P. Guye and Mr. A. Tschernik, which was recently submitted to the French Academy of Sciences. This consists in enclosing the spark gap and the electrometer in a substantial box, in which compressed gas is introduced. According to the Paschen law, the disruptive potential is approximately proportional to the gas pressure. Thus, with a given potential difference, the electrodes of the spark gap can be approached to each other in proportion to the increase of gas pressure, and by the adjustment of the gas pressure effects are reinforced, insuring more accurate readings. This method has been employed in measuring the tension of a Wimshurst machine, which showed a voltage of 50,000 with a pressure of from 4 to 5 atmospheres in the enclosing box.

Last November there was a series of heavy snow storms in Germany, which did considerable damage to overhead cables and telegraph lines. As a consequence, a careful investigation was made of the question of putting such lines underground, and it was found that by using the Pupin system, underground cables would be able to take advantage on lines of less than 600 miles in length with wires not more than three millimeters (0.118 inch) in diameter. The advantages of the underground system were found to be as follows: That there would be no interruptions due to external causes, and that there would be no danger of cross talk, that the efficiency of the line would always be constant, that there would be no interruptions or loss of power for repairs, due to external causes, and that the expense of the cable extra would be provided, which would permit of further expansion to meet future demands. It was also shown that telegraph and telephone lines could be laid in the same cables without danger of future disturbance.

SCIENCE.

Mr. Charles H. Peck, botanist of the State of New York, in his annual report, reports that he has discovered of edible mushrooms in New York amounts to 200. Five new kinds of edible mushrooms were discovered in the last year.

Dr. Charles Forbush, of the Department of Physics in Columbia University, has installed in Barnard College the first portable apparatus for the installation of the Foucault experiment, to show the motion of the earth. Dr. Forbush set up a temporary apparatus for the experiment in St. Paul's Chapel of Columbia University some two years ago, which was described in these columns.

Dr. William Phillips Blake, a member of the first class ever graduated from the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale, died recently at Berkeley, California, shortly after he had received the degree of LL.D. from the University of California. Prof. Blake was 84 years old. When he graduated from Yale in 1855, he became the geologist and mineralogist for the United States Pacific Railroad expedition. His numerous activities included the editing of the Mining Magazine, geological work for the Japanese government, the exploration of a section of Alaska, the teaching of mineralogy and geology in the College of California, a geological examination of Santo Domingo, and the teaching of geology in the University of Arizona.

The satisfactory examination of the absorption spectra of glass of various shades has been put to the thermopile, a spectrometer with glass or quartz lenses and prisms, and the exact determination of the wave length of the limit of transparency requires the use of a slit with very sharp edges, a camera with an excellent lens, and a source of light the spectrum of which contains many sharply-defined lines and extends far into the ultra-violet. The spectra obtained employed for this purpose including the spark spectrum of an alloy of aluminum, silver, and lead, the spectrum of mercury, obtained by means of the vacuum tube or the electric arc, the spectrum of the carbon arc, and even that of the hydrogen arc. The spectrum (mercury) lead bluish, zinc, and cadmium, contain too few lines to give satisfactory results. Zickendahl has recently employed the arc spectrum of iron, which contains many sharp lines, and a number of lines of accurately known wave length, appears especially well adapted for the study of absorption in glass. A Zeiss spectrometer with quartz lenses and prisms was used for this purpose. The spectrum in tabular form, are too complex to be briefly described.

Prof. Haber claims to have solved the problem of the direct synthesis of ammonia from its elements nitrogen and hydrogen. The process is being carried out by the well-known German establishment, the Badische Anilin und Soda-Fabrik. If the process is as practical and economical as its inventor claims, its introduction will quickly cause a revolution in the comparatively new but already important branch of industry, the manufacture of artificial nitrates. In several countries possessed of abundant water power, large nitrate factories in which oxygen and nitrogen are combined directly by means of the electric arc, are in operation. Prof. Haber gives a few details concerning his process, but states that the combination of hydrogen and nitrogen is effected at a temperature of about 1,000 deg. F. and a pressure of 200 atmospheres. In a recent lecture he exhibited an experimental apparatus which produced three ounces of liquid ammonia per hour. The presence of a catalyst is required in order to accelerate the reaction. For this purpose, Prof. Haber employs uranium, but the rarity of this element appears incompatible with its employment on a commercial scale.

The manufacture of nitric acid is said to result in a profit of one hundred million dollars per year. Bread, which may be called the national food of France, has been adulterated largely with talc, a substance which is not only cheap but is exceedingly irritating to the gastro-intestinal mucous membrane because of the sharp crystal fragments which it contains. Flour is often mixed with alum or with potassium permanganate. The use of water absorbed, with zinc sulphate to keep the bread fresh with copper sulphate and ammonium carbonate, to diminish the quantity of yeast required and to improve the appearance of the bread. Denatured alcohol, costing one-eighth the price of pure alcohol, is used for the manufacture of the liqueurs and spirituous, which are so largely consumed in France. Although denatured by the addition of methyl alcohol, is mixed with an equal volume of water and exposed for a few days to the sun and air, which have the effect of precipitating the methyl alcohol to no great extent, it is not readily perceptible. The mixture is then brought to the desired alcoholic strength by the addition of strong spirit, flavored to suit the taste of the consumer and sharpened by the addition of a pint of nitric acid to each barrel.



## THE COSTLIEST EAR OF CORN IN THE WORLD

BY FRANK C. PERKINS

In the accompanying illustration we present ten champion ears of corn, which were sold at the rate of \$1.66 per bushel, at \$1.66 for the ten ears, one of the highest prices, if not the highest price, paid for the number of ears of corn. The champion single ear of corn was sold at the Omaha National Corn Show for \$85, or at the rate of \$1.66 per bushel, which is said to be the highest price ever paid for a single ear of corn.

The champion ten ears of corn shown in the illustration average 10½ inches in length and 7½ in circumference, each ear carrying 30 rows of kernels, the depth of the kernels being ¾ of an inch, and the average



THE COSTLIEST EAR OF CORN IN THE WORLD

weight of each ear was 20 ounces. Prize agricultural products such as these may not be adapted to all localities, for which reason one must not be misled by the awarding of a prize. In some localities the prize

weighting purposes. Lastly it must be considered that from a large field of corn some large specimens may be selected. This does not prove that the selected specimens are the best, but merely the largest.

## A GIANT RUHMKORFF COIL

BY JACQUES BOYER

The first induction coil was made by Masson and Bréguet in 1845, but it was not until 1861 that Ruhmkorff gave the instrument its definite form, which has not sensibly varied since that time, although it has been improved and modified for various applications. Ruhmkorff increased the number of turns of wire of the secondary circuit, for which he employed a very fine and very long wire. Perfect insulation was obtained by saturating the coil with gun lac and the intensity of the magnetic forces was increased by inserting a core of parallel iron wires inside the electrostatic coils. These wires are magnetized by the primary current and the magnetic flux produces currents in the secondary circuit.

The principal improvements which have been made in Ruhmkorff's original coil are the following: In the first place, Wilson, increased the power of the instrument by connecting the ends of the primary coil with the electrodes of a condenser, composed of sheets of paper, insulated by silk and placed in the form of the instrument. The main purpose of this is to prevent the primary circuit from being interrupted by the condenser, which is connected to the secondary circuit by means of a sliding contact. The primary circuit is then connected to the secondary circuit by means of a sliding contact. The primary circuit is then connected to the secondary circuit by means of a sliding contact.

the other. This method avoids the production, between two adjacent turns of wire, of a difference of potential sufficiently great to pierce the intervening insulation.

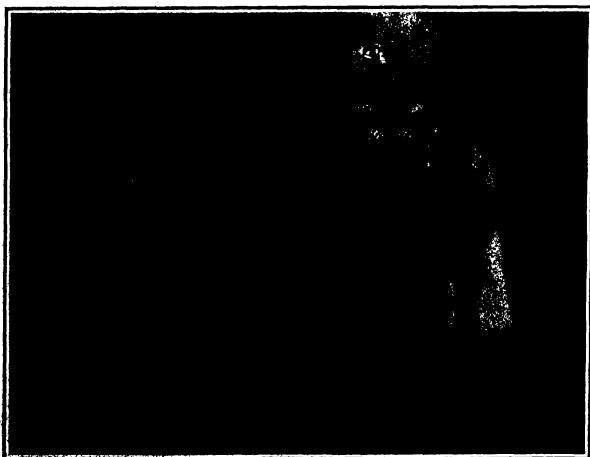
The interrupter, by which the primary circuit is broken at very short intervals, was improved by Duguet, by giving it the form of a vibrating strip of metal, fixed at both ends and bearing at its middle point a

induction coils are usually provided with Foucault's mercury interrupter, operated by a separate battery of one or two cells.

One of the largest induction coils ever made was constructed long ago in England for Spottiswoode, by the instrument maker Appa. Its length was 48 inches, its external diameter, 18½ inches, its weight, 1,675 pounds, and the weight of its core of soft iron, 67 pounds. The primary circuit consisted of 3,100 feet of wire of a diameter of 1/10 inch. The length of the secondary circuit was 250 miles. It consisted of 341,850 turns of wire. This apparatus, operated by 30 Grove cells, produced a spark 40 inches long.

A still larger coil was recently constructed in Paris by Carpentier. The secondary circuit of this instrument is composed of 97½ miles of copper wire of a diameter of 1/125 inch. The soft iron core has a length of 80 inches and a sectional area of 8.2 square inches. The primary coil contains 793 turns of copper ribbon, about ¼ inch broad and 1/8 inch thick, arranged in six layers. The coil is surrounded by an asbestos tube more than ¼ inch thick. This giant induction coil, operated by a current of 110 volts and 30 amperes, produces a spark about 50 inches in length.

The Canadian Government have appropriated \$50,000 for experiments in electrical mining, which are to be conducted under the supervision of Dr. Eugene Hamel, superintendent of mines for the Government of Ottawa.



A GIANT RUHMKORFF COIL.

plate of soft iron. The primary current flows through this plate and a metal point in contact with it. This contact is broken by the attraction which the core of the interrupter, when magnetized by the passage of the primary current, exerts upon the iron plate. But the attraction ceases as soon as the circuit is broken, and the contact is immediately re-established by the pressure of the vibrating strip of metal. In this way the primary circuit is produced. Very large

## FIRE FIGHTING WITHOUT FIRE ENGINES.

As an answer to a question asked by the practical illustration of the engine from fire fighting in the business section of lower Manhattan has been brought about by the successful use of the high-pressure independent fire service. Good results have attended also this method in making in Brooklyn, Coney Island and Philadelphia, and in all of these places independent systems of high-pressure mains supplied from central pumping stations now are essential and established as a means of fire protection. The frontispiece of this week's *Scientific American* illustrates the method and its application by the firemen, and while it is not intended to represent any particular plan, yet shows the essential features of a modern high-pressure pumping station with motor-driven pumps and the use of the hydrants along the distribution system, such as are employed in New York city.

Now if a pressure of water at the hydrant can be maintained as great as that furnished by the pumps of a fire engine then the latter of course is superfluous, and that, along with adequate water supply, is what, in short, the high-pressure system accomplishes. This condition, however, has not successfully realized, has been made possible only by modern mechanical and electrical engineering, to which has been added by intelligently studying and applying the new resources at their command. Referring to our illustration, it will be seen that the high-pressure mains are set of intakes for its water supply come from fresh water and the other, which is in connection with a vacuum pump, for salt water. In the case of the New York system, the freshwater water is used under all normal conditions, and the mains are kept filled at the ordinary city pressure. The drafts on the city's supply for fire purposes compared with the usual daily consumption are insignificant. The mains for salt water may be drawn at any time through intakes extending direct to the pier slips, and is available in case of any failure in the fresh water supply or at a time of a large conflagration. From high-pressure stations either gas or electric motors are available to drive the pumps, as there is always a supply of this kind of power from public service corporations distributed underground, and carefully insulated and duplicated in such a way as to make any possible failure highly improbable. Thus in the Manhattan pumping stations the high-efficiency centrifugal pumps are driven by induction motors, and in Brooklyn, from the Edison Electric Company, with direct connection with its Waterworks station and duplicate connection with its substations, provision even being made to connect with Brooklyn's city supply. A contract between the city and the company requires a constant reservation of power, and the simple operation of switching the power on is all that is necessary. The centrifugal pump has been found most as advantageous, particularly with electric motors.

A high-pressure system protects a given district where the mains and hydrants have been installed and in the case of New York this territory extends from Chambers to Twenty-third streets, and lies between the Hudson River and the Bowery and Third avenues. The pumping stations are located outside of districts likely to be affected by any possible conflagration, and free from danger from neighboring buildings. They are situated at South and Oliver streets and at Gansevoort and West streets. The hydrants in this system are of the type shown in the illustration, and are spaced along the mains at an average interval of 870 feet, and to reach a building on fire in no case would there be more than a half mile to travel, or 450 feet, an important consideration, as the pressure in a line of hose diminishes rapidly.

Let us assume that a firebreaks out in this protected territory, and the alarm is given by the fireman either from a street box or an automatic fire-alarm telegraph to the headquarters. Thence it is sent out over the fire-alarm circuit, through the various fire houses in the city including the station nearest to the alarm. At these stations night and day there is always an operator on duty who sits at a telephone switchboard by which the station can be put in communication not only with the alarm station, but with the headquarters and with the other station. Special telephones in metal boxes are distributed to close proximity to the hydrants through the high-pressure district, and connect direct to the station. The alarm is transmitted by the telephone company. In front of the operator is a large board containing the numbers and locations of the various alarm boxes throughout the district, those in which the alarm has been received, and immediately being designated in red. The alarm comes in over the regular circuit the siren sounds the appropriate number, which is also registered by perforation on a tape, on which also is printed the time by the clock. If the alarm is for the station, the operator immediately grasps the lever of the marine telegraph, and the signals to start are sounded and shown on the large indicator board. The crew springs into readiness to their places, the chief engineer at the

switchboard and the others and machinists at their appointed stations. From the switchboard everything can be regulated and regulated. The telephone is switched to the motors, and the ponderous pumps are soon revolving, another switch opens electrically-controlled valves regulating the water supply, while recording and other engines are started before the eyes of the chief engineer. Not every fire requires the flow of water that can be set in motion from the station, and the standing order is to start one pump, regulate the pressure at the hydrant, and if it is possible. The next order must come from the chief of the department at the fire, and may be a call over the telephone to increase both water supply and pressure or an order to shut down the pumps. As shown in the picture, the chief at the fire is even in closer touch with the pumping station than he could be with a number of separate engines located at the scene of activity. The scene within the station when the pumps are in operation is hardly one of extraordinary activity, and no greater excitement is manifested than in a well-appointed power plant. The electric control of the chief is so complete that he does not need to leave his position at the switchboard, and with ear open for orders and eyes on his meters and indicators, the entire situation is at his command.

Outside with the firemen there is naturally more activity, and high-pressure working has occasioned certain changes in equipment and methods. From the heavy hose of the fire engine, the hose is the strongest hose procurable, and this is sufficient quantity is carried in large wagons. These hose carts are moved from the rear of the fire houses, from which they followed the engine to the front and then, if necessary, right of way over other apparatus in the streets. When the reliability of the high-pressure service was established, for most alarms the engine were not sent out, but held in reserve in the fire houses. In two houses the engines were entirely removed and double section hose companies maintained. As the hose is heavy, the work of carrying and hauling it is particularly arduous, so that in this respect, the labor of the firemen at the fire has not been lightened by mechanical progress. The automobile hose wagon used by the New York Fire Department, however, has demonstrated its complete usefulness for its purpose, the heavy load of 3 inch hose much more rapidly than the tenders drawn by horses. Immediately on reaching the fire, the hose is unrolled, a length connected with the hydrant outlet, of which there are four, and successive lengths are laid to the scene of action. The former engineer of the fire engine with his lever key regulated the pressure at the hydrant, and in the case of the pressure gauges at the outlet, open or shut the valves as ordered. The line is stretched where the valves of the "vision demand, perhaps to the standpipe or to the building, and the hose is then rolled out, close to the building wall, and which connects with the standpipe itself within the building with its outlets and hose reels on each floor. It is this, that, outside the fire protection to a hydrant in addition to the pumping plant of the building, and must be used by the firemen for the higher stories, or it may be used to deliver a stream to a fire in an adjoining building. The connection may be made to the sprinkler system of the building through a similar outlet or to a cellar pipe to flood the basement, or, as shown in the illustration, the lines may be slung into the water tower. The permanent nozzle holders of the hose wagons may be used, while for a single stream the tripod nozzle holders are employed, as the powerful pressure required holding the hose and directing it against the fire is impossible even for the fireman. The hose may even have to be hoisted up onto a fire escape, and there fastened or clamped with one of the devices which have been developed for this purpose. The hose is then rolled out, and a single line is practically as powerful as that derived from a fire engine, so that the concentration of pumping power on any single block can be appreciated. Further, when it is recalled that these streams can be delivered with a force sufficient to tear off corners and make their way into the very nest of the fire, their power may be appreciated.

The New York Fire Department's map of the high-pressure system has been most successful, and quite on a par with the excellent engineering involved in its design and construction. A similar condition has been brought about in the earliest possible moment, and this usually quenches any ordinary fire in short order. If however, it proves stubborn, then it is straightforwardly drawn out in the building where it originated, and in case the high-pressure service has been used in New York, has a fire beyond the building where it began. In the extension of the system on the East Side of the city, the district mains will be laid direct in adjoining streets, passing out from the pumping station into two systems of mains, ordinarily connected but capable of being isolated by the main valve in the station and by stations in the connecting valves at some point of intersection. With the Philadelphia sys-

tem, which incidentally uses gas motors and directing pumps, in use for a number of years, and which has recently been extended, and with a well-planned project under way in San Francisco, it would seem that the day of the fire engine had passed and that the central fire protection method would come to its place in many other large cities.

## A HIGH-PRESSURE FIRE PROTECTION VALVE.

Soon after the successful inauguration of the high-pressure service in New York City, the *Scientific American* called attention to the need of a suitable regulating valve to be used at the hydrant, in order to render possible the control of the pressure on any single line of hose and its adaptation to the work in hand. The need of such a valve has become increasingly apparent.

For some purposes, as for a water-tower or the standpipe of a skyscraper, the highest pressures may be demanded, while for other lines at the same or lower pressure streams which the fireman can hold and manipulate readily are required, as for the lower drops of the same or an adjoining building. When needed, as was pointed out in the *Scientific American*, was a device light and portable, that could be applied readily with the hose at the hydrant outlet, and enable any fireman to regulate the pressure at the hydrant to be passed with a minimum loss in volume of water from friction and otherwise.

This seems to have been secured in the Kiley and Mueller valve, which was recently tested by the city through tests by the New York Fire Department, and has been adopted for high-pressure companies and fire-

The valve is small and compact designed to be transported on the hose tender with the smaller tools. There are two pressure gauges, one on the inlet side showing the pressure at the hydrant, and another on the pump, the other the reduced pressure as the water passes out of the valve into the line. After the hose has been stretched, the engineer opens the central valve of the hydrant with his key wrench, and then the gate valve to the outlet from which the line is taken. The handle of the regulating valve is screwed down, allowing no water to pass. A half turn of the handle in the direction of the arrow allows water at a pressure approximately of 15 pounds to pass, a full turn 30 pounds, and so on up to the full or hydrant pressure. In short, the pressure on any line from the hydrant can be regulated at will, and the engineer merely has to watch his gauges and turn his handle until the desired point is reached when the pressure is maintained automatically.

In a recent issue of the *Scientific American* of the New York Department of Water Supply, Gas, and Electricity witnessed by the author as the representative of the *Scientific American* at the St. Edward's High Pressure Station in Brooklyn, it was very condition imposed. Different pressures from 75 to 300 pounds were put on the mains by the pumps in the adjacent station, and the pressure on the line was reduced as ordered by simply turning the handle of the valve. Thus when over 240 pounds was recorded at the hydrant, 40 pounds was delivered at the nozzle. The adjustment and maintenance of any desired pressure were far more easily and satisfactorily controlled than would be possible with a steam fire engine. Variations in the pressure on the mains did not affect sensibly the operation of the valve, while when the line was shut down at the nozzle, the water was maintained.

The valve consists essentially of a valve body, containing a seat, main disk, piston, auxiliary valve; a diaphragm, a compression spring, an adjusting screw, a handle, and a piston rod. The valve is made of cast iron. The disk and piston are constructed of one piece, and the portion of the metal connecting the disk and piston has in it a small port through which high pressure passes over the piston, which, being of greater diameter than the disk, drives the latter down to its seat, thus shutting off the pressure. The next part of the operation is brought by the opening of the auxiliary valve mechanism above, which, being of greater diameter than the port through which the high pressure is conveyed to the top of the piston, quickly causes a reduction of pressure on the piston side sufficient to enable the piston to rise, and the water to pass. As soon as the reduced pressure has become sufficient to force the diaphragm up against the pressure started by the adjusting spring, it causes the auxiliary valve to close, which, owing to its greater pressure above the valve, which, owing to its greater area, causes the main valve to close. This operation is repeated as often as occasion may require. The function of the small bypass valve is to enable the fireman to enable it to be shut off, the valve when closed, as in a middle emergency. The paper to operate the valve is obtained by the fireman, who, upon the valve being opened, the valve is closed, and the pressure, which is most intense, is maintained in the main valve.





# HOW TO ESCAPE FROM A SUNKEN SUBMARINE

## METHODS APPROVED AND DISAPPROVED

In a diving manual recently published by Bloeb, Gorman & Company, Limited, submarine engineers of London, we find some excellent suggestions on the subject of saving the crews of submarine boats.

The problem of saving the lives of a crew of a submarine vessel is by no means easy of solution. The equipment and apparatus which is invaluable on shore is quite useless under water. It would be quite easy to construct a submarine boat, the crew of which would be safe under practically every conceivable set of circumstances, but such a vessel would be so hampered by her safety devices as to have little or no military efficiency. In the opinion of Messrs. Bloeb & Gorman it is essential that the salvage of the vessel and of the crew must be looked upon as entirely separate. Inevitable delays in the arrival of the salvage vessel and in getting purchases on, conditions of tide, weather, etc., render it almost certain that a submarine cannot be raised in time to save life.

It is taken for granted that an accident which will endanger the lives of the crew will result in the loss of the vessel in large quantities. A minor accident to the machinery would result only in an involuntary rush to the surface, owing to the reserve buoyancy of the boat, and any ordinary small leakage can be readily dealt with by the machinery at command.

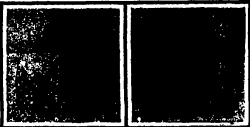
When, however, there is a collision, or when, by some other mischance, a hole is made in the hull, the water enters freely, and the effect will be the descent of the vessel to the bottom. This may not be very fast, but, assuming that the water is entering more rapidly than it can be expelled, the vessel will not doubt sink and continue to fill until she is either full, or, if not holed in the top, until the air in her is compressed to a pressure equal to that of the water at the depth in which she has foundered. As soon as the salt water comes into contact with the battery or with the terminals of the dynamo, if this is still working, chlorine is evolved, and the air remaining inside is vitiated.

If anything is done, it must be done quickly. Accordingly, the following steps must be taken:

- (a) To render the crew independent of poisonous gases.
  - (b) To preserve the crew from drowning in the boat, and
  - (c) To provide means of escape from the boat, and ascent to the surface.
- The devices to bring these about at present known are:
- (1) Air locks for escape.
  - (2) Detachable chambers or life boats.
  - (3) Self-contained dress for escape.

Air locks alone are of little use except in shallow water, but combined with (2) or (3) are essential in all methods of escape. The air lock may be a portion of the boat provided for the special purpose, or the general cavity of the boat may be used in which case the pressure inside the vessel can be made equal to that of the water outside by simply allowing the water to enter for it is manifestly impossible to open an aperture until the pressure at both sides of it are equal. The great objection to all forms of detachable chambers or life boats is their size, weight, and resistance. If made large enough to contain all the crew of a modern submarine, and as such a chamber would have to be carried as a superstructure, it would be in the likelihood of being injured

in case of collision. Moreover, what is further against any device of this kind is that the crew are expected in a moment of considerable excitement to undertake an entirely novel operation which there is no means



The diagram on the left shows a longitudinal section of a submarine, showing an air lock in use, three men under water, and a diver in the air lock. The diagram on the right shows a cross-section of a submarine, showing a diver in the air lock, wearing a diving helmet, and a man operating from the conning tower.

### VARIOUS METHODS OF ESCAPE.

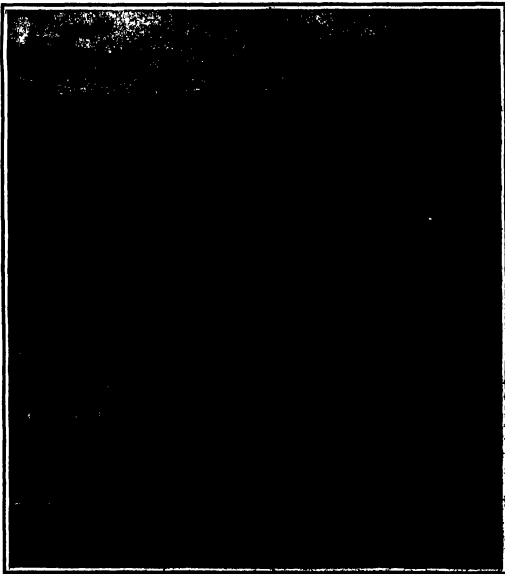
of trying previously. Experience has shown that even plain drop safety weights fail at the critical moment.

A life-saving device to be efficient must be able to fulfill promptly the three conditions, a, b, and c, previously referred to, and in order to meet them a special form of diving helmet has been designed by Messrs. Bloeb & Gorman which is quite self-contained and not dependent on any feature which is liable to get out of order. The helmet, which is large enough to allow the head free movement, is sloped away to fit the shoulders, and is connected to a short jacket of strong waterproof material. In front of the jacket, inside, is a pocket containing a combined air purifier and oxygen generator, consisting of two small chambers

formed in one case. These chambers are charged with a patented substance which, when in contact with the water vapor of the breath, gives off pure oxygen gas and forms a caustic alkali. The alkali in its turn takes up the carbonic acid gas of the respiration and forms an alkaline carbonate. In this way, up to various types of smoke helmet, the same air, purified and re-oxygenated, is used over and over again. The total weight of the whole outfit is 16 pounds. Folded up for storage, it occupies a space of 15 inches by 10 inches by 15 inches. The dress can be put on without assistance in 30 seconds. When it is put on it prevents a man from drowning, and in proof of this it may be said that it is now in everyday use under water with perfect success. Moreover, it acts as a life buoy, and actually raises the wearer to the surface. An additional device is also fitted to enable the wearer when he reaches the surface to inflate a flexible chamber which surrounds the jacket and thus to form a life belt. This provision is necessary, for the length of time the purifier will remain in action is limited, and when its efficiency is impaired the door in the helmet must be opened, which operation can be performed by the wearer, in order to admit fresh air. When this is done the helmet ceases to be buoyant. Other methods, such as the fitting of cork belts or chambers already filled with air, have been tried and abandoned, being found to be impracticable, owing to the necessity of smothering heavy weights to keep the wearer down, and also by reason of the dangerous velocity with which he would rise to the surface on the removal of the weights.

At Portsmouth the British Admiralty have in use a huge water tank, at the bottom of which is erected a skeleton submarine boat, serving the purpose of permitting the men to exercise in the helmet described. The men having first been trained in the use of the helmet, they are quickly able to practice getting into and out of the air lock. They are afterward lowered in the air lock to the bottom of the tank, where they enter the submarine, and find their way to a ladder leading to the conning tower, the hatch of which they open. They then either float to the surface, or return to the starting point, the operations being repeated until the officer in charge considers the men proficient. These arrangements have been designed to represent as nearly as possible the same conditions as would obtain in a submarine boat that had been flooded.

If the hole in the submarine be at the top, the water will gradually displace the whole of the air. If, however, the hole is below the top, then the water will only enter until the air, which cannot escape, has been compressed until the pressure is equal to that of the water outside. In the latter case there is no difficulty in getting at and putting on the helmet from above, since there is air inside the hull. In the former case, however, unless special provision were made, this would not be so, and, accordingly, submarines are constructed to open the air lock at the top of the hull. The dress is kept hanging up in readiness in the air lock, so that the men can put it on quickly. This does not, however, prevent the helmet from being a liability in the event of the vessel being submerged, as the helmet is not attached to the vessel, but is carried by the man.



By courtesy of Illustrated London News.

The boat having sunk to the bottom, air will be consumed either under the head of the vessel, or under the stern. If the air is consumed under the head, the men, having put on their diving helmets, will be able to breathe the oxygen gas which is evolved from the oxygen generator. If the air is consumed under the stern, the men, having put on their diving helmets, will be able to breathe the oxygen gas which is evolved from the oxygen generator. The men will be able to breathe the oxygen gas which is evolved from the oxygen generator. The men will be able to breathe the oxygen gas which is evolved from the oxygen generator.

HOW NEW DEVICES SPARE A SUNKEN SUBMARINE

# ARTIFICIAL RADIUM BATHS AND DRINKING WATER

BY DR. ALFRED GRADENWITZ

Until quite recently the curative effects of mineral waters were ascribed to the chemical substances held in solution. The lack of mineral solvents in some waters of remarkable therapeutic value could not be explained on this principle. Moreover for some unaccountable reason it was observed that most waters lost their healing properties when taken at some place distant from their source.

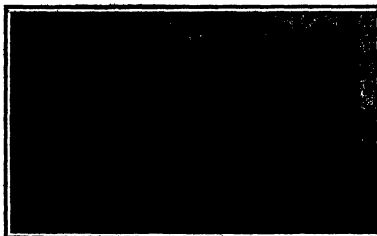
All these contradictory phenomena can now be

plainly explained by ascribing part if not all of the curative power to radioactive substances. In fact nearly all mineral waters have been found to contain radioactive emanation. This emanation being an extremely unstable body most waters lose their activity in a few days so that the curative agent cannot exert its action unless the water be administered as soon as possible after issuing from the ground. Only a few waters containing radioactive substances capa-

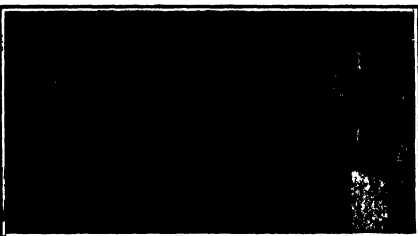
ble of giving off a constant supply of emanation have been found to keep at least part of their activity for a long length of time.

This tracing of all rays of radiation suggested the artificial control of radiation by means of radium to impart curative effects to mineral waters and to increase the efficiency of natural springs. The idea of adding variable amounts of emanation has been carried out.

(Continued on page 462)



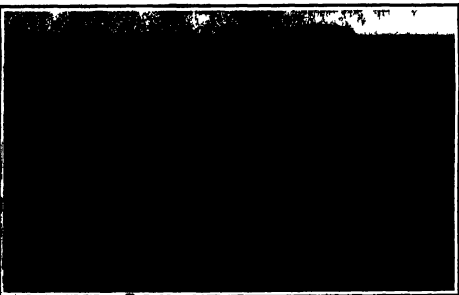
Laboratory for obtaining highly concentrated radioactive substances.



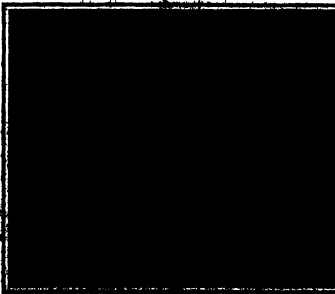
Laboratory for coarse chemical processes.



Washing plant for radioactive substances treated by chemical processes.



General view of the famous Kirschbach valley.



Room where the emanation is kept in a special container.



Mother liquor shipping room.

ARTIFICIAL RADIUM BATHS AND DRINKING WATER.

# ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL AND THE TELEPHONE

## THE STORY OF A GREAT INVENTION

The telephone was first introduced to the public in 1876, and put to the first practical or commercial use in 1877. During that year was organized the first association or company to hold the patents. The first company which was organized to exploit the business was formed in 1876, one for New England and one for the rest of the United States and Canada. These two companies succeeded to all the rights and property of the original association. The capital represented \$750,000 the value of the patents, and \$100,000 in cash. Early in 1879 these two companies were consolidated into one company called The National Bell Telephone Company, the first company to attain any prominence. The capital of this company was \$850,000, deposited among 8,500 shares of \$100 per value each. The sum of \$850,000 in shares was given, share for share, for the stock of the two old companies, and \$200,000 in shares was left in the treasury. This treasury stock was sold for the best price obtainable, as the money was required and yielded about \$450,000 in cash. The last 500 shares of this treasury stock sold for \$500 each. In the fall of 1879 a settlement was effected with the Western Union Telegraph Company, whereby the most formidable and powerful competitor was removed from the field. Then it was that the stock boomed. The \$100 shares, of which there were 8,500, some \$5,000, were quoted at one time at \$1,000, although that price was probably never actually paid. At the highest quotation, a total market value of all the shares of the company would have been \$8,500,000. According to popular belief, twelve of the original investors have been credited with realising if not more, at least as much as this, yet no dividends were paid by this company.

Because of the rapid increase in business, more capital was required. Hence in 1880 the American Bell Telephone Company was organized and the business of the National Bell Telephone Company transferred to it. The shareholders of the National Bell Telephone Company were given for each share of their stock 10 shares of the new American Bell Telephone Company's stock. At the same time, 8,500 shares of the treasury stock were sold at par. In 1881 the first dividend was paid.

The American Bell Telephone Company continued its business until 1899 during which time the capital stock had increased from \$1,950,000 to \$25,865,000. When the American Bell Telephone Company transferred its business to the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, there had been over \$25,000,000 actual cash paid into the treasury of the company by the shareholders as against \$25,865,000 capital outstanding during the time no stock dividend was paid. A dividend of surplus in cash to the stockholders was paid. The market price of the American Bell Telephone Company's shares during the year ranged above \$200 a share, and the company was paying 15 per cent dividends yearly.

The demands of the public required much larger capital than could be provided under the corporate powers of the American Bell Telephone Company. Hence, the American Telephone and Telegraph Company was organized to operate the long-distance traffic, and to it the business was transferred in 1899. The dividends were put on a 7 1/2 per cent basis, and were increased in 1906 to 8 per cent, at which rate they still continue. Since when the company of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company has been increased from time to time as the business called for money. At the close of 1906 there were in the hands of the public \$200,471,360.

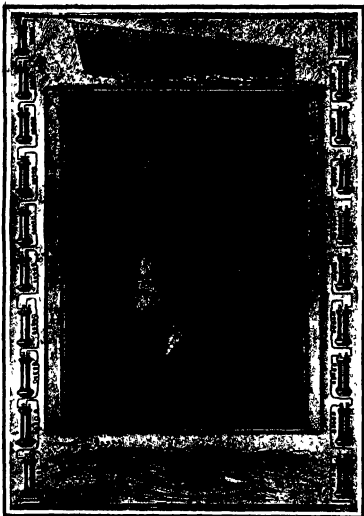
This tremendous industry is the fruit of Mr. Alexander Graham Bell's indomitable and persevering work as a young man. His story of the invention of the telephone is a story of patient endeavor and experiment, continued for years in the face of many difficulties. He approached the subject more or less as an expert in speech, for both his father and grandfather were teachers of articulation and the laws of speech, and he had himself been educated to follow in their footsteps. In boyhood he constructed a talking machine. At the age of sixteen he made discoveries which as thought might concern the part played in the production of vowel sounds by the resonance of the cavity of the mouth. It was not long be-

fore he learned that Helmholtz had not only made the same discoveries, but had produced the sounds of the vowels by combinations of tuning forks, operated by electro-magnets. In order to repeat Helmholtz's experiments, Bell began to study electricity. In 1873 he constructed an experimental apparatus in which each transmitter consisted of a tuning fork with its prongs between the poles of an electro-magnet. In 1875 he applied intermittently by means of a wire which was attached to one prong of the fork and alternately made and broke the contact with a cup of mercury as the fork vibrated. As the prongs of the fork were attracted by the magnet each time the current was applied, the fork was kept continuously vibrating and sounding. By pressing a telegraph key, the intermittent current was sent through the line wire to the receiving instrument, which consisted of another electro-magnet and tuning fork. If the receiving fork was exactly in unison with the transmitting fork it was also thrown into vibration, but it was not in unison. It remained silent, because the partial currents did

current, instead of being intermittent, was undulatory, varying in intensity and direction in exact accordance with the motion of the transmitting reed. The two instruments were exactly alike, and either could be used as the transmitter. Several such pairs of instruments, of different pitches, could be employed, with a line wire connecting the two stations, and the plucking of any reed, at either station, would theoretically cause the reed of the same pitch, and that reed only, to "speak" at the other station, so that a number of messages could be transmitted simultaneously in each direction. Bell, however, thought that the currents thus generated by the vibration of the reeds would be too feeble for practical use in multiple telegraphy and as he therefore turned his attention to a system which included a battery and a mechanical circuit breaker.

Meanwhile, in connection with his professional work, the instruction of deaf mutes and their teachers, Bell had been experimenting with the phonograph, an instrument devised by Gramophone for making and reproducing records of the vibrations of sound. The short arm of a light wooden lever was attached to a membrane stretched over the small end of a funnel, and the long arm terminated in a brittle which touched a sheet of glass, covered with lamp-black, which was drawn along at a uniform speed. When a sound was uttered into the funnel the sound waves caused the membrane to vibrate and the brittle to trace on the smoked glass a sinuous curve, which represented the vibration as exactly that not only every pitch but every quality of voice, and each of the vowel sounds, produced its characteristic tracing. The principles of the phonograph is almost identical with that of the phonograph. Bell discovered defects in the instrument, and as he labored to remove them, it occurred to him that the best form of phonograph would be an imitation of the human ear, in which the sound waves are likewise received by a membrane, the ear drum, and the vibrations are transmitted to the inner ear by a series of bone levers. Dr. Hanks, an artist to whom Bell applied for help in information concerning the structure of the ear, suggested the employment of a real human ear instead of an imitation. An anatomical specimen was prepared with a fine straw attached to one of the bone levers to serve as a writing point, and Bell experimented with it in 1876, while he was still working with his reeds and electro-magnets.

Another possibility had occurred to him. He knew that when a vowel sound is sung into an open piano all the strings that correspond to the overtones, which give the sound its vowel quality, as well as the string corresponding to the fundamental tone, are set into vibration. He knew so that the piano repeats the particular vowel uttered. In like manner, the transmitters, if sufficiently numerous, might take up from the line the component single vibrations of a vowel sound and transmit them by means of the electro-magnets and the line wire to the receiving reeds, which would reproduce the vowel sound at the distant station. Bell also considered the possibility of employing, at each station, one large electro-magnet and one small one, in connection with all of the reeds, and thus combining the elementary electrical vibrations, corresponding to the components of the aerial sound waves, in the coil of the electro-magnet and the coil of the electro-magnet. "In this way," the inventor has said, "I realized in the summer of 1874 the conception of a speaking telephone, and the apparatus is the first form of speaking telephone that could be constructed in a sufficient number of reeds, and so that "harp" telephones were never realized. Then it occurred to Bell that the essential electrical effect in the coil of the electro-magnet might be produced by a single reed, if this reed could be formed to move in accordance with the resultant sonorous vibration. While studying this problem he was experimenting with the phonograph made by a human ear. He was then at the lightning of the ear drum in connection with the weight of the bones moved by it, and it occurred to him that a human ear might be used as a receiver. The circuit was never broken and the theory



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ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL.

not reach it with the proper frequency to cause it to vibrate. It was Bell's idea to use several transmitting forks of different pitches, and as many receiving forks of the same pitches. As each transmitting fork uttered only the particular receiver that was in unison with it, a number of telegraphic messages could thus be sent simultaneously over a single wire. Afterward Bell substituted for the tuning fork a steel plate reed, with one end clamped and the free end very near the poles of the electro-magnet. The transmitting reed, like the tuning fork which it superseded, definitely made and broke contact, and thus made the current intermittent, and the receiving reed vibrated acoustically only when it was in unison with the transmitting reed. Bell later Bell conceived the idea of polarizing or magnetizing each reed by clamping it to a pole of a permanent magnet, allowing its free end to project, as before, over the poles of the electro-magnet. He knew that the vibration of the reed would induce current in the coils of the transmitting electro-magnet and that these currents, reaching the receiving electro-magnet through the line wire, would set the reed of the receiver into vibration. This arrangement reeds were tuned to each vowel. This arrangement circuit with the galvanic battery and the necessary circuit-breaker. The circuit was never broken and the theory

# A MOTION APPARATUS FOR AMATEURS

## AN INGENUOUS FRENCH INVENTION

The production of photographs of moving objects has hitherto been desired to amateurs, for various reasons. It requires complicated and costly apparatus and delicate manipulations which cannot be performed without special appliances.

A simple apparatus, called the Cinéphoto, has been devised to obviate these difficulties and to put motion photography within the power of every amateur photographer, at least to the extent of producing animated portraits of his friends and his children, for the Cinéphoto does not pretend to vie with the elaborate apparatus by which thousands of instantaneous photographs of a long and complex scene are impressed on hundreds of feet of film.

small perforations, cause the disk to rotate intermittently, pausing after each advance long enough for a single exposure. At the same time the shutter is automatically caused to open when the disk stops and to close when it resumes its rotary movement. For the disk containing 24 pictures arranged in a circle, the bearing is fixed at the center of the plateholder, but for the disk with 75 spirally arranged pictures, the disk is displaced in such a manner that each picture is made in its proper place in the spiral curve. In either case the movement of the mechanism is automatically arrested when

work and essentially similar to the mechanism employed in making the negatives. But, as only a very fleeting illusion is thus produced by the disks which contain 24 pictures, there is provided, for these disks alone, another apparatus which can be turned by hand, slowly and for an indefinite time, showing the pictures repeatedly in their proper order. A third form of apparatus is furnished for the purpose of projecting the pictures on a screen with a lantern.

A writer in a contemporary refers in numerous failures of cast iron fittings which were, however, of the usual run of commercial extra heavy fittings of which neither the metal nor the thickness were sufficiently

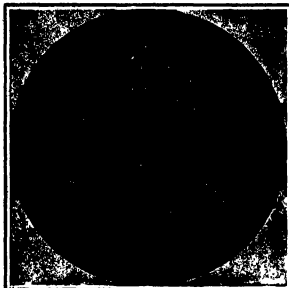


Fig. 1.—Disk with 24 pictures.

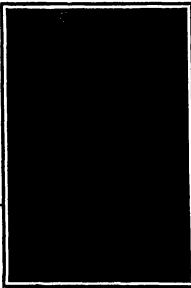


Fig. 2.—Watching the motion pictures.

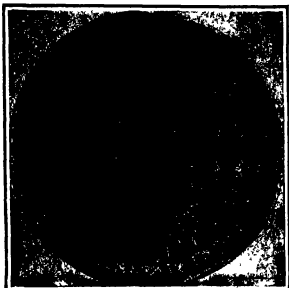


Fig. 3.—Disk with 75 pictures.



Fig. 4.—Apparatus for projecting the motion pictures.

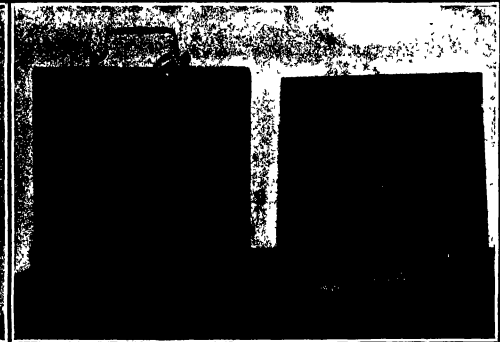


Fig. 5.—Cinéphoto camera and plateholder.

### A MOTION APPARATUS FOR AMATEURS.

The Cinéphoto comprises two distinct pieces of apparatus: one for making the pictures, the other for exhibiting them in such a manner as to give the illusion of movement. Both of these devices work automatically, by means of very simple mechanism. The negatives, which are either 24 or 75 in number, are made on a circular sensitized plate, on which the 24 pictures are arranged in the form of a circle, while the 75 pictures are arranged spirally, as the accompanying illustrations show. In either case, the disk is perforated with small holes, equal in number to the pictures, and distributed at equal angular distances along the same curve—circle or spiral. By means of a larger hole at its center, and a corresponding peg or bearing, in the plateholder, the disk is secured in the latter so that it can turn freely about its axis. The movement of a bearing then follows a pin, to which a series of small, rectangular perforations are attached by means of an automatic mechanism driven by elec-

the entire series of photographs has been made, so that double exposures are prevented.

The lens of the Cinéphoto is either a "Grapher," which is corrected for stigmatism, and can be used with a stop of  $\frac{1}{16}$  inch, or a "Barograph," which is uncorrected, but very well corrected for spherical and chromatic aberration and gives perfect definition with a stop of  $\frac{1}{16}$  inch.

As there is no rigid connection between the disk and the mechanism, either single or double plateholders, or even a negative camera, can be employed.

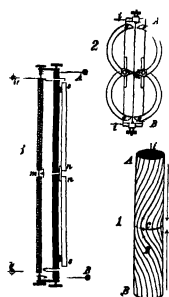
The negatives are developed in the ordinary manner, with the aid of a suitable, controlled picture frame, and are printed on a suitable paper, which has a perforation corresponding to those of the negatives. The moving scenes are reproduced and projected in the air (indicated by a magnifying-glass) by means of an automatic mechanism driven by elec-

tricity. The growth of cast iron under repeated heating is discussed and reference is made to Outbridge's work. Steel fittings have also failed, within the author's experience only four out of twenty-five steel gate valves, 6 inches, 8 inches, and 10 inches in diameter, were fairly tight after one year's service. A thoroughly sound steel casting can withstand highly superheated steam, which does not initiate defects but rapidly develops them. Gun iron is high grade cast iron having a tensile strength of 30,000 pounds or more, and is adapted for 150 pounds of steam with 200 deg F superheat. Analysis of various specimens of iron which failed under 250 deg superheat are given, but the following are unusually weak: 200 deg superheat for four years. Silicon, 1.72 per cent, sulphur, 0.085 per cent, phosphorus 0.89 per cent, manganese, 0.48; total carbon, 2.45, combined carbon, 0.17. Low silicon, phosphorus, and carbon character- istic.

## AN INGENUOUS TORSIONAL WAVE DETECTOR

BY THE PARIS CORRESPONDENT OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN

Prof. A. G. Roze of the Royal Polytechnic Institute of Turin has devised a new form of detector for use in wireless telegraphy, which is of special interest because of the novel principle it employs. He uses the property known as magnetostriction found in iron or nickel wires. A fine iron wire stretched in a magnetic field is found to



How the torsional effect is produced

tion between two fixed points *A B*. Two constant magnetic fields formed by two equal bar magnets magnetize the wire in two halves in the opposite sense, with the intensity *J J* and longitudinally as shown by the arrows. At the same time a current is sent through the wire from *A* to *B* and this gives a circular magnetization to the wire with an intensity *I*. The result of the combined magnetostriction will be a magnification of half the force *F* owing to the effect of magnetostriction the

wire will have a torsion represented at *G* in the direction of the arrow, this being what is known as the Wiedemann torsion effect. Leaving the longitudinal field as it is if we reverse the current in the wire the torsion effect will be also reversed. When we send an alternating current through the wire we have a strong effect of vibration as the torsion is also alternating in its sense. A mirror placed at the middle of the wire is made to reflect a beam of light on a screen and the spread of the beam shows the amplitude of the vibration. The effect is much stronger when the period of the alternating current is of the same value as the normal vibration rate of the wire, and we have a much longer line of light on the screen. The wire is of about 0.01 millimeter diameter, and is held under tension between two light springs mounted on an insulating plate. Fig. 8 shows the arrangement, and the springs are coupled to the binding posts *A B*. Near the ends and at the middle of the wire project three iron points which come from the bar magnets *s s s s* so as to guide the magnetic flux into the wire. This latter is stretched inside a glass tube of small diameter leaving a gap at the center for the mirror. A spiral of insulated copper wire is wrapped about the glass tube with the two halves coiled inversely and the current comes from *s* and *s* into the wire. The copper spiral is designed to receive the waves from the antenna and it acts to modify the effect which we have seen above to be given by the combination of the alternating current and the bar magnets in the wire. When no waves are received we have a constant torsion effect in the wire, that is a constant rate of vibration. When on the contrary the wave effect occurs in the copper spiral the rate of the vibration is modified and the line of light on the screen is changed. The terminals *a b* are connected to a pair of vertical antenna wires which are insulated from ground. All the rest of the apparatus is held insulated on a glass tube support 2 feet from the floor. Light for the beam is given by a Nernst lamp and the same alternating current circuit is used for exciting the wire, using the proper means to secure a very small current through the wire. The copper spiral is joined at the top to the antenna and at the bottom to ground. With such an arrangement the instrument shows the effect of waves received from a distant station and

we notice variations in the beam of light due to this cause. It is designed especially to be used for receiving signals formed by a succession of waves, each wave to follow each other in series so as to find periods of low frequency. The frequency is first adjusted so as to be the same as that of the vibrating wire. Besides the effect of the high frequency waves, this allows us to use a second or local tuning of the low period waves. It should be remarked that Prof. Roze's instrument transforms directly an electric vibration of low frequency into a mechanical vibration and contrary to other detectors, there is no transformation of energy between the effect of the waves and the registered optical indication. It is thus extremely sensitive. To have a permanent record of the signals, the author proposes the use of a photographic band descending in front of the beam and as the variations of the latter are observed, we would have a set of wave-like signals printed on the band. By using a selenium cell which is lighted by the beam we could work a Morse register with the instrument, provided a strong enough light is reflected by the mirror on the cell. Owing to the sensitiveness of the instrument there is no doubt that it can be used with a much less expenditure of power at the sending station. On the other hand it stimulates the apparatus which is needed at the receiving station. An alternating current generator is not required in this case, but a simple vibrator will give the needed impulses for exciting the stretched wire.

A detector which transforms electrical waves into light

## THE HEIGHT OF THE ANTARCTIC CONTINENT

BY WALTER LANGFORD

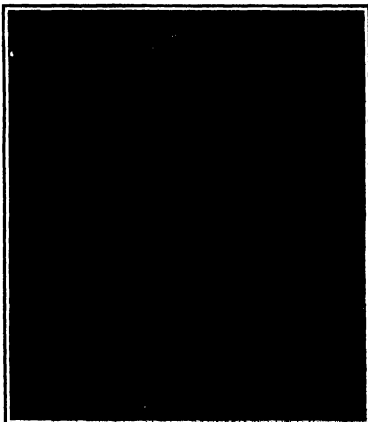
Our knowledge of the Antarctic continent is daily becoming more precise. Soon after Shackleton's memorial dash toward the South Pole had furnished very important data in regard to the interior of the continent. Charcot's voyage supplied valuable additions to our knowledge of the boundaries of this vast territory. The French expedition succeeded in surviving a winter a great many miles off coast line that had previously been entirely unknown or only conjecturally laid down.

The results of these expeditions prove that the mass of land accumulated about the South Pole is even greater in contrast with the other continents than had previously been supposed. The elements involved in this comparison include an estimate of area and a determination of the heights of the mountains. Both of these elements require exact and comprehensive surveys. The problem was first attacked by Humboldt at an epoch when our knowledge of the earth was very incomplete. Hence Humboldt's estimates of the mean elevations of the known continents above the sea level are far too low. This mean elevation is the height of a fictitious plateau obtained by distributing the mass of the continent uniformly over its surface. It is the quotient obtained by dividing the volume by the area. Humboldt's estimates of the mean elevations of continents are: Europe 6,700 feet, North America 748 feet, South America 1151 feet, Asia 1161 feet, entire known land surface of the globe 1804 feet. Except in the case of Europe these values differ enormously from the more recent estimates given below. This discordance shows the necessity of thorough exploration

and accurate surveys although a general estimate can be obtained from elements of a totally different character as we shall see in connection with the

Antarctic continent. Krummel who was the next after Humboldt to attack the problem estimated the mean elevation of the entire known land surface of the globe at 1448 feet, a value which was still far below the truth. The later estimate of Lapparent, based on more complete data was 2066 feet, or more while the more recent estimates of Murray Penck, Lopus and De Lillo are still higher. Murray's values as revised by Penck are: Europe 818 feet, Australia 818 feet, North America 1968 feet, South America 2066 feet, Africa 2183 feet, Asia 2114 feet, general land surface of the globe 2118 feet. From these values which appear to be very nearly correct, the total volume of the continental masses is computed to be about twenty-four million cubic miles.

All of these estimates relate only to those parts of the world that were known at the epoch when the various estimates were made. The recent Antarctic explorations have entirely changed the face of the problem and have raised the Antarctic continent to the first place which was formerly occupied by Asia. The exact and extensive knowledge which we now possess is required to the other continents is still lacking in the case of the Antarctic, of which we know only the few points that have been reached by a few expeditions. Humboldt has endeavored to determine the height of the Antarctic continent from meteorological data. Such attempts at estimating the height of the continent are of course of no value.

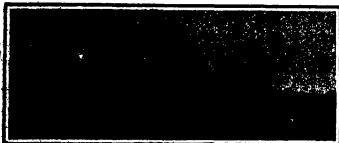


MEAN HEIGHTS OF THE CONTINENTS

## CURIOSITIES OF SCIENCE AND INVENTION

## REVIEWING A TOWN BY RAIL.

Peapack heretofore is a trailhead of houses on the Westchester, Mineral Wells & Northwestern Railway in Texas. There are five flat cars loaded with miners' outfits in two rooms each, each room being 12 by 14 by 8 feet. Extreme height above the car is 15 feet 4 inches. In addition there are two cars containing the

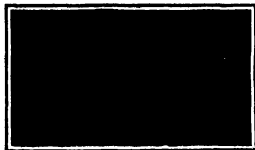


A TRAINLOAD OF MINERS' OUTFITS.

food to kitchens, and two cars that carry other wreckage of the coal-mining town of Rock Creek, Texas, whose mines were abandoned. The train was moved successfully at the rate of 15 miles per hour, and carried a number of side-grade curves having the outer rail elevated four inches.

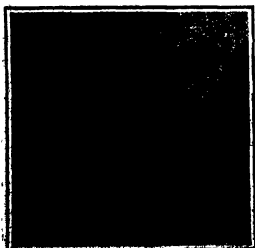
## WOODEN FRAMES FOR AIRSHIPS.

When the Zeppelin balloon was destroyed in a thunder storm two years ago it was asserted that a static discharge of electricity from the metallic frame of the balloon had ignited the gas. To obviate such an accident in the future, a German inventor has devised a balloon having a wooden frame, which he claims is



A BALLOON FRAME FORMED OF WOODEN STYLA.

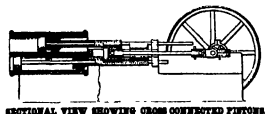
not only lighter than aluminum, but is stronger as well. A frame thus constructed was exhibited at the Frankfurt Exposition last summer, and proved quite an attraction. The accompanying photographs show how the frame is made up in a network of wooden stipes which is very strong and yet possesses a considerable degree of flexibility. The model illustrated is 66 feet long and 8 feet in diameter. The meshes of the network are much smaller than in the Zeppelin type of balloon, using aluminum framework. Accordingly, the wooden frame makes a more efficient support for the envelope of the balloon when the gas is expanded by the heat of the sun. Another advantage of the wooden frame is the fact that it can be repaired anywhere, whereas aluminum can be worked only with special apparatus and by an experienced workman. The wooden frame is not affected by heat or cold, and may be rendered waterproof by coating it with a suitable varnish.



A BALLOON FRAME WITH THE WOODEN BALLOON ENVELOPE.

## ENGINES WITH HEADLESS CYLINDERS.

In order to produce a completely-balanced engine, an inventor has recently adopted the unique plan of providing the engine cylinders with two pistons each. The steam enters between the two pistons, separating them. This renders the cylinder heads useless, for there is no reaction against them. One of the pistons is provided with a hollow piston rod to receive the rod of the other piston. The engine shaft is provided with two cranks at right angles to each other, which are respectively connected to the two piston rods. Thus a forward and backward impulse is given simultaneously by the steam entering one cylinder, and there is an equal distribution of the load. When the pistons reach the end of their stroke, steam is admitted to a second cylinder of the same type, which repeats the operation while the first cylinder exhausts. There are no jolts, strains or vibrations, as the forces are entirely absorbed in motion. The ends of the cylinders are preferably closed by suitable doors, to prevent dust or other extraneous matter from entering and choking or clogging the working parts. These doors are shown open in the accompanying photograph. The model illustrated has shown remarkably high efficiency, and is so perfectly



SECTIONAL VIEW SHOWING CROSS CONNECTED PISTONS.

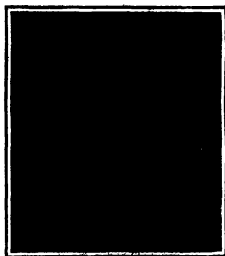


A HEADLESS-CYLINDER BALANCED ENGINE.

balanced that it will run smoothly on the slightest of supports.

## A NOVEL AUTOMATICALLY ADJUSTABLE ORGAN BLOWER.

A novel method of adapting electric motive power to organ blowing is shown in the accompanying engraving. The mechanism comprises an accurately turned hemisphere of aluminum driven by a small electric motor fixed to a bracket swinging horizon-



NOVEL ELECTRIC ORGAN BLOWER.

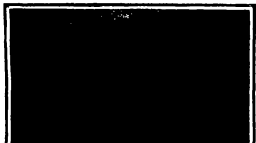
The speed is regulated by a swinging hemispherical friction wheel.

ally on a vertical spindle. The hemisphere drives by friction an ordinary bicycle wheel fitted with a pneumatic tire, as shown in the illustration. There are the usual cycle chain and sprocket gear, for still further reducing the speed, and the final chain wheel transmitting motion to the bellows handle by means of a crank. There is no slip between alumi-

nium hemisphere and the tire, owing to the elasticity of the air cushion, and as they are constantly in contact there is no wear. This ingenious little machine will blow a 16-foot or larger organ silently and with very high efficiency. It requires no attention, and current sufficient to run the motor is obtained by connection with an electric lamp socket. As it is practically silent and occupies a surface of only 45 by 16 inches and is 23 inches in height, it can be placed on the floor beside the instrument. The speed of the motor is constant, but automatic control of the pumping is provided by a chain connection between the swinging bracket and organ reservoir or bellows. By means of this chain the motor and hemispheres may be drawn through an arc of 90 degrees into the position of full organ, while a spiral spring returns them to the neutral position, as shown in the illustration. The rising and falling of the reservoir thus causes the speed of the bellows handle to vary from zero to maximum, and keep the bellows full automatically.

## A NOVEL PADDELL FLYING MACHINE.

The peculiar flying machine illustrated herewith was one of the novelties at the Olympia Aero Show held recently in London. It is the invention of Messrs. Wylie and Ottino, and consists of a large number of small planes arranged in an endless band and driven somewhat after the manner of a tread mill, the idea being that as these planes move along from one end of the machine to the other at a rapid rate they produce

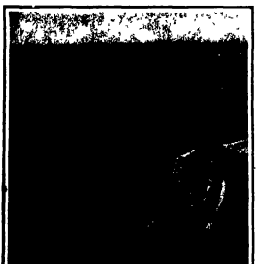


FLYING MACHINE WITH A TRAVELING CHAIN OF LIFTING PLANE.

a lifting effect owing to the slight angle to the horizontal at which they are set. As they move around at one end in passing from the bottom to the top they are at an angle to the horizontal and still produce a lift, while as they descend at the other end their downward movement produces a lifting effect. The machine was exhibited without a motor, but this fact did not detract from its novelty. The idea of the moving planes is that the flying machine will lift itself directly in the air and that no forward motion over the ground will be required.

## A SERPENTINE WHARF.

One of the longest wharves in the world, almost a mile in length, or to be exact, 4,200 feet is at Port Los Angeles, Cal. It extends into the Pacific in a long serpentine curve. The reason for this construction is that it offers better resistance to the strong currents and the buffeting of the waves than if it were perfectly straight. Until the nearly harbor of San Pedro was developed by the Federal government, the big wharf at Port Los Angeles was a very busy place, but of late it is comparatively seldom used except by the Japanese fishermen, who have formed a colony along the adjacent beach.



A SERPENTINE WHARF NEARLY A MILE IN LENGTH.









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(Continued from page 504)  
the mother liquor this process is very complicated and expensive

The brine is vaporized in generating works, the output of which depends on the season, the direction and intensity of the wind, as well as on the temperature of the water. The output of the brine generating works (the total length of the generating works is approximately 26 kilometers) is divided into seven compartments of decreasing lengths traversed consecutively by the wind. The brine concentration increasing as each compartment is traversed. After leaving the last compartment the weak solution is from light to twelve times more concentrated. This solution is then used in the works exposed to the wind. Hence operation of the plant is difficult in variable winds. On the other hand, the surrounding air is being strongly cooled and saturated with moisture, which is only beneficial to the generating works a very cool and pleasant place to stay on hot days, but affords a welcome opportunity for utilizing the curative effects of the refreshing

The pumps of the graduating works are operated by a number of water wheels fed from the river Naha through a system of canals. From the graduating works the brine is pumped through conduits to the reservoirs of the evaporating house, in order there to be boiled

Both the evaporating house and grading works date from the middle of the eighteenth century when the Salines were erected the ancestors of most of the workmen employed therein having spent their lives in the works.

The primitive boiling process carried out in open salt pans has recently given way to a modern multiple vaporizer with improved devices for recovering the mother liquor and the salt. It consists of a steam boiler and a number of vaporizers an air pump etc.

As the boiling of the brine and mother liquor is carried out *in vacuo* at low temperature the decomposition of valuable chemical compounds is entirely prevented, thus increasing the curative effects of the products.

When brine has been boiled down to such concentration as to contain in a hundred kilograms (twenty-two kilol.) grammes of common salt a supersaturated solution is obtained from which thick crystalline salt is precipitated. As the concentration of the brine increases, then, increasing amounts of salt are precipitated. The part to the salt is an acid taste. These salts are used for various therapeutic purposes while the brine left after the separation of the common salt forms the mother liquor used for other therapeutic purposes and of which about 5000 litres are produced per annum. For shipping over great distances, the mother liquor is further concentrated until it crystallizes in turn.

Experiments commenced in the autumn of 1936 showed that the Kremsmuth water contains radium in not only negligible amounts of gas but also in the form of a precipitate. The water, along from the interior of the earth, has a high content of radioactive substance. Part of these substances is the water during the gradual rise to the surface. The water and air will separate along with iron, calcium and barium carbonate while an other part remaining in solution forms in the form of a precipitate. The water, therefore, is a mixture of radium, thorium and actinium as well. The Kremsmuth liquor derived from the Kremsmuth brine as well as from the bathing water, is a mixture of radium, thorium and actinium. Further experiments in 1937 demonstrated the possibility of isolating thorium and actinium from the water of radium from the residues of conversion of radium. The water of radium from the Kremsmuth yield every year radioactive residues by the hundredweight! It was deemed advisable to attempt the production of radium from the water of radium.

Considered on page 470

Continued on page 470



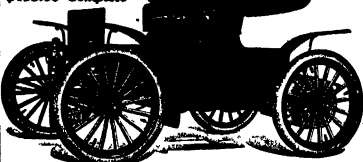
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(Continued from page 470.)  
The first president of the first telephone company. It is doubtful if the telephone company would have been so rapidly developed. Furthermore, the original owners and promoters of the telephone were, above all, business men, actuated by the old idea of developing the business along broad lines. Whatever reward they expected or received was the legitimate reward following the legitimate development of a substantial and beneficial business. To develop that business it was first necessary to develop an art. There was nothing like that art in existence at the time, indeed, the whole art of the practical application of electricity was new.

The telephone is not the only art with which Professor Bell's name is linked. In wireless signaling, too, he made some early experiments which, had they been stopped, might eventually have led him into the field of wireless telegraphy and telephony. During experiments which he made on the Potomac River in 1878 and 1879, he succeeded in signaling for over a mile. He informed the writer of this article that an account of his work on the Potomac River which he gave to Preece in England, may possibly have influenced Preece in his work. His attention was first called to the subject in 1877, when he was experimenting on ground connections. He used poles as terminals. When he thrust a pole into the ground and put the telephone to his ear he heard a clock ticking. It was the Cambridge Observatory clock, which he easily recognized because it missed a tick now and then as it regulated the time in Boston. Cambridge was nowhere near Mr. Hubbard's country seat, where the experiments were conducted.

Aerial locomotion is another art with which Professor Bell has become identified. His interest in the subject was aroused when, in 1890, he began his kite-flying experiments, largely for the sake of his health. He started with a Hargrave bat kite and eventually developed the tetrahedral principle, which is now well known among aeronauts. During the course of his experiments he found that he needed the services of civil and mechanical engineers. Accordingly, a little association was started under the name "Aerial Experiment Association," which included among its members the late Lieut. Selfridge, Glenn Curtiss, Baldwin, and Mcurdy, all of them now well known. Baldwin and Mcurdy acted as engineers. Curtiss was the motor authority. The association was Mrs. Bell's idea, and was founded to carry on Mr. Bell's own work. She sold the only piece of property which was in her own right, and which had not been given to her by Mr. Bell, in order to finance the association. Although these engineers were all originally engaged to help Mr. Bell in his tetrahedral experiments, the members of the association ended by helping one another. Selfridge was the first man who produced by his own efforts a successful result. Believing that it was best to follow in the footsteps of others, and then to improve on them, he started with gliders, and finally built the "Red Wing," which won successfully. Next came Baldwin's chance. He embodied his ideas in the "Silver Dart," in which wing tips were introduced. Controlling devices which are now the subject of so much controversy. Then came Curtiss' "June Bug," which was the first motor-driven airplane. Curtiss was the first to make a successful flight. Curtiss remained at Hammondsport, New York, and Selfridge was recalled to Washington by the War Department. The association was so scattered that it was necessary to adopt some means of communication. Hence, the weekly bulletins were started under the title "Bibliography of the Aerial Experiment Association," which had a complete structure of wires, and which

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served the purpose of keeping the members in touch with one another.

#### HEIGHT OF THE ANTARCTIC CONTINENT.

(Concluded from page 461.)

concludes that, if the continent covers an area of 5,500,000 square miles as Peacock and Krummell assume, its mean elevation above sea level is about 6800 feet with a probable error of  $\pm 260$  feet.

If the estimate is approximately correct, as the results of the recent explorations appear to indicate, the Antarctic continent is by far the highest mass of land on the globe. By the addition of this huge polar cap the mean elevation of the entire land surface of the earth is increased from 2,512 feet to 2,706 feet.

The process by which Meinardus reached these conclusions may be sketched as follows. It was already known that the mean height of the barometer over the northern hemisphere is 0.8 millimeter higher in January than in July, but that the corresponding barometric height for the zone extending from the equator to 50 degrees south latitude is 2.1 millimeters lower in January than in July. Hence, as the entire mass of the atmosphere and consequently the average atmospheric pressure over the whole surface of the globe remains constant, the mean barometric height for the zone south of 50 degrees south latitude, which is equal in area to about one-fourth of the southern hemisphere, must be about 16 millimeters greater in January than in July.

The observations made by recent explorers, however, led Meinardus to the conclusion that the mean atmospheric pressure over the zone lying between 50 degrees south latitude and the Antarctic circle is not greater, but is 0.71 millimeter lower in January than in July. This means that the January deficit of pressure and restricts the area in which it can be made up to the Antarctic zone, in which, consequently the mean atmospheric pressure must be 11 millimeters higher in January than in July. Within the Antarctic circle the only observations available for this discussion are those of the ship "Albatross," "Hedgehog," and "Southern Cross," which together comprise the records of four entire years of these parts of the atmosphere. The pressure was lower in January than in July. Thus the area in which compensation for the deficit can be sought is still further restricted, apparently to the Antarctic continent.

Meinardus finds the explanation of this puzzling state of affairs in the great height of the Antarctic continent. The atmospheric pressure diminishes as the elevation of the point of observation increases, and the difference is greater at low than at high temperatures. Hence, in a region where the atmospheric pressure is constant throughout the year at the sea level, it is appreciably higher in summer than in winter at an elevation of several thousand feet. For a given elevation this difference increases with the difference between the summer and the winter temperatures. Meinardus and Hann have computed that the mean atmospheric temperature of the Antarctic continent is  $56.6^{\circ}\text{F}$  in January and  $52.1^{\circ}\text{F}$  in July (Antarctic midsummer and -14.6 deg F in July (Antarctic midwinter). In these conditions it can be calculated that the mean excess of the atmospheric pressure (11 millimeters) required for the entire Antarctic zone would be furnished by a mean elevation of that zone of about 4,000 feet on the assumption of a constant atmospheric pressure at the sea level. But the coasts of the Antarctic continent have been explored sufficiently to make it reasonably certain that the continent occupies very approximately two-thirds of the entire area of the Antarctic zone. Hence, on the assumption of a constant atmospheric pressure over the remaining third which is covered by water, Meinardus arrives at the conclusion that the average height of the Antarctic continent is about 6,800 feet.



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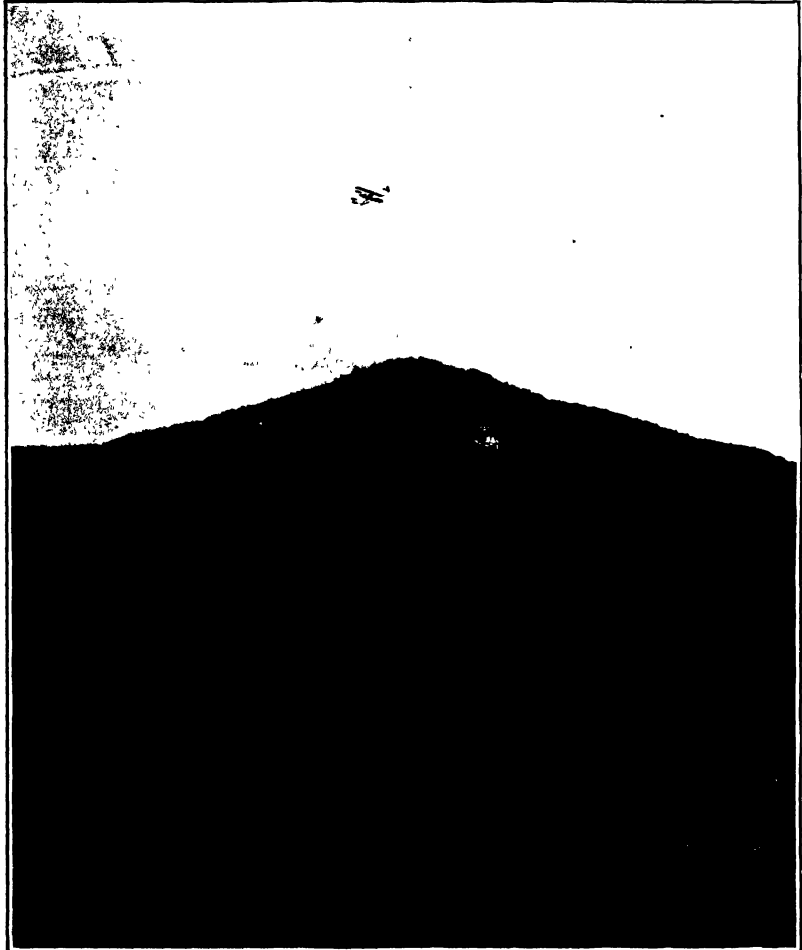
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**A POPULAR ILLUSTRATED WEEKLY OF THE WORLD'S PROGRESS**

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THE HISTORIC FLIGHT OF GLENN H. CURTIS DOWN THE HUDSON RIVER.—[See page 410.]



ENGINEERING.

**Concrete.**—It is proceeding so satisfactorily at the Borm Becka lock in the upper or low-level tier, which formed the subject of recent illustrations in our columns, that one-half of the work is completed. The grand total of excavation to be on the canal during April was 1,615,616 cubic yards.

In a recent paper, Rear-Admiral Bacon of the British navy, discussing the probable battleship of the future, arrives at the conclusion that the race between gun and armor will be a long one, for over half a century, has been decided, for the moment, in favor of the gun, nor is there any indication of there being a chance of improving the armor and strengthening general construction, so as to render ships reasonably immune from armor-piercing projectiles.

The fact that the excavation of the Panama Canal through the Coluera range of hills has set in motion a mass of 2,000,000 cubic yards of material, which is sliding into the excavation apparently on an inclined substratum of clay, serves to illustrate one of the many advantages of the present high level canal over one at one level. The sea-level cut would have been carried eighty feet deeper, and the slides would have been, in all probability enormously greater. The material will have to be removed, but outside of the additional expense, no ill effects are to be apprehended.

The Boston and Washington Rapid Company is to be congratulated on having introduced some all-steel baggage cars for the transportation of baggage between the several steam railway terminals served by its system. The sides of the cars are provided with roller curtains. There are also folding aprons, which can be let down to bridge the gap between the loading platform and the car. Right loaded baggage trucks can be wheeled directly to the cars, an arrangement which eliminates much handling and trucking and facilitates quick loading and unloading.

It has been determined that the sinking of the United States floating drydock, "Dewey" at Olongana in the Philippines was due to a combination of factors. The intake valves. Accidents of this character occasionally occur, and one is reminded of the sinking of the "Texas" at the Brooklyn navy yard, which happened shortly before the Boston and Washington Rapid Company is to be congratulated on having introduced some all-steel baggage cars for the transportation of baggage between the several steam railway terminals served by its system. The sides of the cars are provided with roller curtains. There are also folding aprons, which can be let down to bridge the gap between the loading platform and the car. Right loaded baggage trucks can be wheeled directly to the cars, an arrangement which eliminates much handling and trucking and facilitates quick loading and unloading.

Asked for his opinion regarding the probabilities of the introduction in the near future of gas engines as a motive power for driving large steamships, Sir William Henry White, for many years chief constructor of the British navy, recently stated that his opinion of the difficulty of high temperatures for the present effectively barred the way. If this problem could be mastered as to its mechanical features, it might be possible to utilize gas engines of 20,000 horse-power; but the proposals to drive battleships with gas engines "are so far only schemes."

The plan for opening a central avenue, one hundred feet wide, between Fifth and Sixth avenues from Eighth to Fifty sixth streets, which is being actively favored by Mayor Gaynor, would undoubtedly relieve the congestion on Fifth Avenue, to say nothing of providing the city with a magnificent thoroughfare through one of its most crowded districts. The estimated cost of forty million dollars, however, is prohibitive. There are other public improvements, such as subways, municipal buildings, and public schools, that are more urgent.

An extraordinary record was made at target practice by the new battleship "South Carolina," of eight 13-inch guns, which has been in commission only three months. Command J. B. Edwards, 31 years old, who is in his 21st enlistment, made a record with the 13-inch guns in the vessel's No. 4 after turret of 16 bulls' eye target hits out of 16 shots in 4 minutes and 51 seconds. The hits per gun per minute for the whole 13-inch battery were 1.66 and 1.66, and the projectile hit the bull's eye. Furthermore, three of the four turrets on the ship made 100 per cent of hits.

The advantages of oil over coal were illustrated in a recent trip of the "Tide," one of the 35-knot passenger steamers which are being built by New York and Boston. The trip was so satisfactory that oil will be used exclusively on these ships in the future. Outside of the absence of smoke from the funnels, is the complete absence of noise and dust due to coaling. Formerly, the "Tide" burned on a round trip 855 tons of coal, which took eight hours to get aboard; it takes it only one hour for an oil barge to pump into a tank the same amount of fuel. The cost of oil will save her the round trip. The principal saving, amounting to \$400 a month, is due to the fact that night engineers do the work in the boiler room, where formerly day-shift men were necessary.

ELECTRICITY.

In their tour of the Great Lakes this month, the members of the Chicago Association of Commerce will be able to keep in telephonic communication with their Chicago offices. Their steamer, the "Theodore Roosevelt," is fitted with a wireless telegraph outfit, and also with a telephone system, which can be connected with land lines at the docks where the steamer puts up.

The indirect system of illumination, which consists in directing the light of a lamp upon a reflecting surface, such as a ceiling, and having it reflected and diffused thereby, is rapidly growing in favor. In order to make this system possible with the use of arc lamps an improved type of arc lamp has been developed by an English concern, in which the carbon-footing mechanism is placed below the arc. The result is virtually an inverted arc lamp, and there is practically no objection to the light passing upward except for the means of suspension from the ceiling.

This fall the annual meeting of the Illuminating Engineering Society is to be held at Johns Hopkins University. Arrangements have been made for an extended course of lectures on the subject of illuminating engineering, immediately after the convention. Thirty six lectures will be given from October 25th to November 8th, and facilities are provided for practical demonstrations and laboratory work in connection with the subjects taken up. It is hoped that the subject matter will result in a course of study in this branch of engineering for undergraduates of technical schools. It is realized that there is a scarcity of practical illuminating engineers.

In Norway and Sweden the question of hydro-electric generation of power has received a great deal of attention from the fact that there are so many rivers in these countries capable of such development. Contrary to the custom in this country it is the practice in Sweden to couple generators directly with slow speed turbines. One interesting form of turbine generator consists of two wheels, the shaft of one passing through the hollow shaft of the other. The wheels turn in opposite directions, and one shaft carries the armature, while the other carries the field of the generator. This virtually amounts to doubling the speed of the generator or reducing the number of poles. Hydraulic turbine bearings are used. At Koronas, Sweden there are two pairs of turbines on a single shaft, developing 420 horse-power. The fall is but six feet and the wheels make but 107 revolutions per minute. At Hangfjord, in Norway, where there is a fall of 520 feet, a single wheel is used producing 1,500 horse-power running at a speed of 300 revolutions per minute.

Mention was recently made of a refined stethoscope and telephone relay, by which the heart beats of a patient in London could be heard in the city of Wight. In a paper read before the British Institution of Electrical Engineering, S. G. Brown, the inventor described the construction of this relay. It comprises a gap of 0.000,005 centimeter between platinum electrodes. The current of a dry cell will flow across this microscopic break, but any slight variations in this distance will vary, greatly, the current passing across the gap. The principal difficulty encountered was the question of preserving a gap of such microscopic proportions. It was evidently impossible to maintain the gap mechanically, but a system has been devised whereby the gap is held constant by the action of the current itself. Despite the delicacy of the adjustment, the relay may be turned upside down without affecting the gap. With this relay the fluctuation in feeble currents may be magnified twenty fold and a telephone description of this relay and telephone will be published in next week's issue of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN.

The wireless telegraph station which has been recently erected by the French government on the Channel coast at Boulogne is of interest from the fact that it represents the first official application of the Bellini-Tosi system of directed waves. The new plant at Boulogne is operated by the French Postal and Telegraph department and is held out to be operated either by the usual method or by the Bellini-Tosi system. Accordingly the plant has an ordinary vertical antenna and an antenna for directed waves. Channel coast stations are supposed to be situated from towers 155 feet high placed at the corners of a 260 foot square. Four cables connect the tops of the towers, and the Bellini-Tosi antenna consisting of two parallel wires, is suspended from the cables. Each group is formed of two vertical antenna converging towards the top, each having six parallel wires spaced 18 feet apart. These antenna form a triangle with a horizontal section near the ground and a vertical 18 foot wire. At the top the antennas are 200 feet apart and at the bottom 450 feet. The new station is working with the French stations of Salomon, on the Mediterranean coast, and also with the African post.

SCIENCE.

Prof. Edward Friedrich Whittow, who died on March 17th at the age of 81, at the end of over sixty years of single-minded and unwavering devotion as a student of physiology, was best known to the scientific world by his 13 volumes of "Principles of Physiology." To that monumental publication many a distinguished scientist has contributed. Pfliiger himself made a special study of the mechanism of spinal action in the frog, and the results of his reflections on an experiment upon the decapitated animal was one of his earliest investigations. His work on physiological consumption in living organisms has played an important part in our knowledge of the chemical respiration of the tissues.

During the past three months the United States Weather Bureau has introduced a simplified form of weather map, known as the "commercial weather map," for publication in the daily newspapers, and this new appears regularly in about forty papers. This is an innovation of far-reaching importance, as it gives a much wider circulation to the information contained in the map than it has had heretofore. While the matter is still in the experimental stage, it appears altogether probable that the newspaper maps will ultimately replace the maps now published by Weather Bureau stations throughout the country, resulting in a great saving of expense to the government and the advantage to the public, whose circulation it gives a much wider circulation to the information contained in the map than it has had heretofore.

Prof. Bronschorp has studied the power of yohimbin to increase the yield of milk of cows and pigs. The results prove that the yield of milk is increased during the administration of yohimbin, but the increase is not sufficient to make an extensive use of yohimbin as a milk-toucher commercially profitable in the case of healthy animals. In the case of a cow, whose yield of milk was diminished by an inflammation of the udder, the disease was greatly mitigated by the treatment, and an increased yield of milk followed. Many similar instances were observed. In no case did any injurious results follow the administration of the medicine. No experiments have yet been made on the influence of yohimbin on lactation in the human species. In this case the question of expense is of less relative importance and the favorable result obtained with animals appear to promise a successful outcome.

The alloys of iron with metals other than those which enter into the composition of the steel and cast steel have been little studied. In order to ascertain if any of these alloys possess useful electrical properties, Hureau and Aston have made a series of experiments with alloys of iron with various metals. The alloys were melted together in the electric furnace in a crucible of magnesia. The alloys were cast into bars which were subjected to various thermal treatments, and were investigated for magnetic permeability and hysteresis. The results show that the presence of antimony in iron always improves the mechanical strength of the metal, and sometimes makes it workable. Small quantities of arsenic improve the magnetic properties of iron and increase its electrical resistance. Bismuth produces the same effect, but it must be added in larger quantities than arsenic.

"The sun shows in the Lion," says SENECA, meaning that when the sun enters the sign of Leo the summer solstice the highest temperature of the year is experienced. We may say, on the other hand that the Babylonian astronomers thousands of years ago placed the king of the stars, the fiery and ferocious lion, in the part of the zodiac which the sun enters at the summer solstice. The constellation which is called Leo bears very little resemblance to the outline of a lion. It is chiefly the nature of the stars in Leo that is the principal star, Regulus. It is to this constellation in the zodiac that we owe the countless water-bearing "Lions" heads, which are found in ancient and modern fountains, from the Nile to the Rhine. The fact that the sun is still in the sign Leo the Nile is at its highest level. Furthermore the lions head with widely open jaws is in itself very suitable for the mouth of a fountain. The Nile, the most important of the most employed universally throughout the Greco-Roman world. Lions heads are found used in this way at Athens Epheus, Olympia, Arginurum, and countless other places. The lion's head was used in the employment of the Lion's head fountain originated in Egypt. Ctesius describes an Assyrian bar-rel from Babylon, showing water streaming from a ring-shaped vessel. A lion stands as if on guard on either side of the fountain, and the water is used in the fountain. In the judgment of the Greeks, the head of a lion and a name which means the guardian of the stream. Hence the idea of protection may have been the origin of the association of lions with fountains, and this custom may have originated in Asia.



## THE OCEANOGRAPHIC MUSEUM AT MONACO

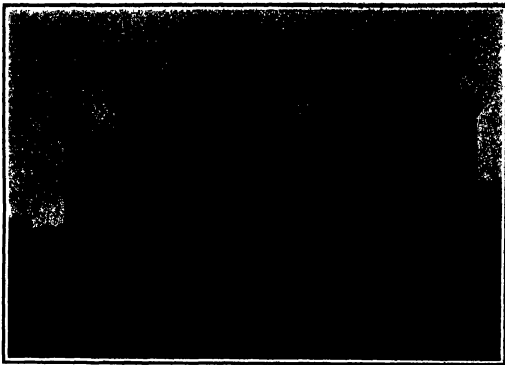
BY DR. ALFRED GRADENWITZ

The Prince of Monaco besides being the ruler of one of the smallest though most charming countries, has achieved fame in the world of science, has endowed his principality with a scientific institute unique in its kind, viz., an oceanographic museum devoted to contain not only the enormous collections brought home from his own voyages of discovery, but, generally speaking, everything relating to the investigation of the sea and its inhabitants, animal and vegetable.

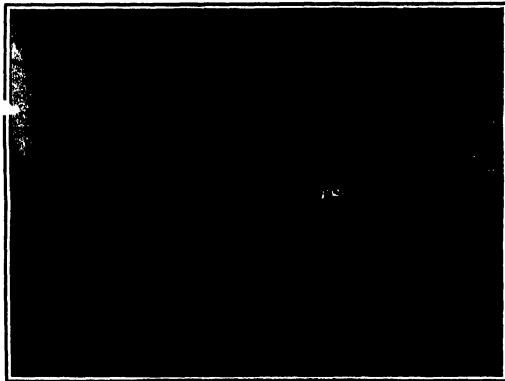
This museum, which was solemnly inaugurated some weeks ago, is situated in a site of surpassing beauty on a precipitous rock dominating the Mediterranean, close to the famous St. Martin Gardens thus allowing of the installation of two basement stories, which open immediately on the sea, for the sake of certain scientific investigations. The foundation works of the building had obviously to be most elaborate, the more so as some of the pillars start nearly from the level of the sea.

The building, 100 meters in length, is of a most imposing appearance, and is a masterpiece from an architectural point of view. Some of its monolith columns 8 meters in length, is 16 tons in weight. Most of the motives of decoration are derived from the fauna of the ocean.

When entering the ground floor, we are at first struck by the imposing mosaic floor, on which is represented—likewise in mosaic—the *Princesse Alice*, the yacht on which the Prince has achieved his most important scientific cruises. Everywhere around the hall are seen ornamental subjects representing fishes



The museum of Monaco.



Skeletons of whales, narwhals, and other ocean giants.

and other inhabitants of the ocean. On both sides a monumental staircase leads up to the first floor.

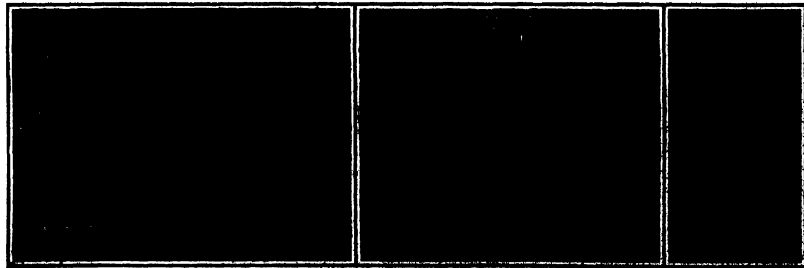
After passing through a huge glass-paneled door, we enter a large assembly hall, 7 meters high, adorned with four beautiful columns of Breccia limestone, from the ceiling of which is suspended in the center an electric lustre representing a medusa, whereas each of the four angles is taken up by a smaller lustre forming a glass sphere adorned with long prisms reminding of sea anemones, star fishes, and other radiata. In front is seen a large statue of the Prince, representing him on board his yacht searching the horizon.

The western hall is set apart for lectures, congres, and other assemblies, a large part of its back wall being taken up by an artistic painting representing the *Princesse Alice* on an intensely blue and somewhat agitated sea.

The eastern hall is taken up provisionally by sundry collections of zoological subjects and oceanographical instruments, but is destined particularly for the collections brought home from the Prince's voyages, which include the rarest and most beautiful specimens. In fact, the wonderful equipment of the *Princesse Alice* has allowed the sea to be searched down to a depth of more than 6000 meters, while four expeditions in Arctic districts, beyond 80 deg northern latitude, have yielded specimens of the Arctic fauna, suggestive of the most interesting comparisons with those of the Mediterranean and the Northern Atlantic respectively.

Whereas these zoological collections are housed in the right hand half of the hall, the exhibits on the

(Continued on page 480)



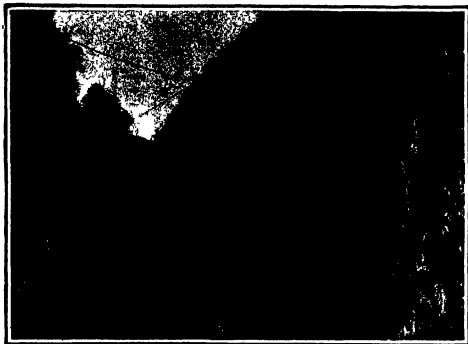
The large assembly and lecture hall of the oceanographic museum of Monaco.

Skeletons of whales, narwhals, and other ocean giants.

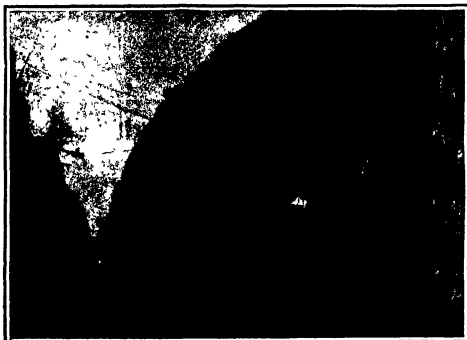
The large assembly and lecture hall of the oceanographic museum of Monaco.

## A REMARKABLE NEW RAILWAY BRIDGE IN SOUTHERN CHINA

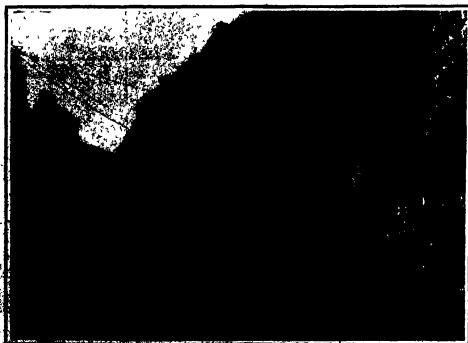
The superstructure of the bridge is composed of steel laminated arches forming the ends of which are in alignment at the mouth of the tunnel and on three intermediate supports. The bridge is the latter supported by four vertical columns the frames of triangular profile and by two horizontal beams which are fixed into the walls of the abutments. The lower ends of the supporting columns are



### Beginning the lowering of the supporting trusses



The supporting trusses lowered half-way.



The standing frame lowered to their final positions.

### THE WALKER SYSTEM

on abutments constructed on artificial ledges on the walls of the gorge about 60 feet below the railway. The distance between these abutments is about 140 feet but the total length of the superstructure of the bridge is about 220 feet.

The supporting trusses were shipped from France in parts small and light enough to be carried by men and mules, while the upper trusses, the pylons and the joint connecting the supporting trusses were sent out in riveted sections of comparatively great size and weight which could be transported only by rail as it was designed to have the railway completed in the gorge by the time the construction of the supporting trusses would be finished.

The supporting trusses are attached to their abutments as they are to each other by movable joints. They are assembled in nearly vertical positions and their upper ends were subsequently lowered until they met.

Each of the supporting trusses is composed of two single triangular trusses the planes of which are inclined at an angle of 14 degrees to the horizontal. The trusses are about 25 feet apart from each other at their lower and outer ends and 10 feet apart at their upper and inner ends. The straight bottom chord of each truss is composed of two vertical plates about 2 1/2 inches thick and 14 inches deep. The top chord is composed of two 10 inches suitably connected and stiffened by L-brace or angle plates. The top chord, which forms a broken line in the truss, is constructed of variable thicknesses of plate placed above by transverse plates about 1/4 inch thick. The truss is completed by pairs of light L-brace plates which are connected to the bottom chord of the two single trusses of each supporting truss are connected by cross braces in the planes of the normal brace and in the planes of the top chord, bottom and top chord.

The lower and outer end of each single truss is supported on a steel pier by means of a hinge and socket joint of steel. The compressive members of the truss are attached to the truss at the lower member is fitted to the pier by means of a bed plate and adjusting wedges. The radius of curvature of the joint is about 6 inches. The upper and inner ends of the trusses are attached to the main joints, having pins of round steel,  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inches in diameter. These pins are perpendicular to the planes of the single trusses and consequently, are not horizontal but the amplitude of oscillation is so small that this slight inclination does not influence the freedom of the joint.

Although the weight of the bridge is sufficient to insure transverse stability in the

strongest winds, additional resistance is given by steel bars attached to masonry anchorages and to the rock.

The superstructure of the bridge is composed of two terminal spans 51 feet and 717 feet long, and two intermediate spans each 48.2 feet in length. The trusses have a uniform depth of about 6½ feet. The floor beams which connect the top chords of the two main trusses are 16 inches deep and about 1/8 inch thick.

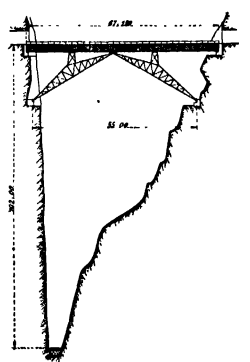
The most interesting feature of the Nam-Ti bridge is the method by which the bridge is supported. The various parts of the supporting trusses had reached the tunnel nearest the French possessions a windmill was set up over the mouth of each tunnel and the cables of these windmills were joined together so that material suspended from the junction could be carried across the gorge by unwinding one cable and winding up the other.

The supporting trusses were partly assembled into a few large sections in the tunnels. These sections were then hoisted to their proper places in the trusses which were erected in a nearly vertical position and supported by the ball-and-socket joints at their lower ends and by temporary stays and timbers. The terminal section of the truss, including the socket, was first placed in position on the ball of the joint, which was anchored securely to the rock. The outer halves of the upper chords with the ties and braces lying in their common plane, were next erected. The rectangular frame thus formed, which leaned against the cliff and was also stayed by ropes and timbers was then attached to the interior of the tunnel by two tackles strong enough to prevent it from being dragged forward by the weight and leverage of the remaining parts as they were added, and to maintain the completed truss in its vertical position. This frame then served as a scaffold for the assembly of the bottom chords of the truss and their attachment. In this position of the truss the bars which are perpendicular to the bottom chords were so nearly horizontal that they formed convenient supports for the few planks on which the workmen stood. After the bottom of the truss had been completed the inner halves of the top chords were assembled in the same manner some of their auxiliary parts being temporarily omitted in order to lighten the lower ends of the truss. The parts were temporarily joined by means of lathe-turned bolts in order to secure the greatest possible precision, but the construction of the supporting trusses was so far in advance of that of the railway that it was found possible to replace most of the bolts by rivets before the track had been extended to the gorge. Meanwhile in order to save time, a line of coolies, marching in single file, carried through the coils of tortuous mountain passes for more than 15 miles, the two heavy chains, each 900 feet long, which were employed in lowering the supporting trusses to their final positions. The other machinery required for this purpose, as well as the sections of the upper table of the bridge, was brought by rail.

The lowering was accomplished by means of two great pulley blocks, anchored to the face of the cliff above the tunnels and connected by the two long chains with two similar pulley blocks attached to the upper ends of the trusses. The cables were first drawn taut in order to slacken the temporary tackles at the top of the interior of the tunnels and also the removal of the trusses were then slowly paid out, by means of windlasses provided with brakes, allowing the two trusses to turn around their outer ends like the halves of a binnacle drawbridge, until their inner ends came together. In order to facilitate this operation, both trusses carried dights at their inner end, and one of them, which was lowered a little after the other, bore both parts of the hinge joints by which the trusses were to be connected.

The omitted parts of the trusses were then added, a bed plate was constructed over their junction, and a girder, which had been partly assembled in frames of two parts, was erected over the middle of each truss.

The upper table of the bridge was assembled, as a continuous truss in a straight and not very long excavation in the first tunnel. As its construction progressed it was moved forward with the aid of rollers placed on the two piers and the junction of the supporting trusses, until it had been completed and its forward end had reached its abutment on the opposite side of the gorge. The connections between the four spans were then removed. The construction of the bridge was commenced in March, 1908, and was



Side view of the bridge and section of the gorge, with dimensions in meters.

completed in November of the same year.—G. Botin, in *La Usine Civile*.

At the Höganäs coal mine in the south of Sweden, state the Iron and Coal Trades Review of Stockholm have been carried on for some time with the smelting of the iron ore by means of Swedish coal. These experiments were at first conducted with a Grönblad furnace using coal of an inferior quality, for which it was designed to find an outlet. Later the chief director of the Höganäs coal mines undertook to conduct



The completed structure; the rails of which are 88½ feet above the river.

#### THE NAM-TI BRIDGE.

the experiments independently, and it appears that he has now obtained favorable results, and that sufficient data have been collected to allow of exact calculations and estimates being made. The owners of the Höganäs coal mines—the Billaberg Aktiebolag—have, in consequence, resolved to build a furnace with a capacity of 15,000 tons of iron ore per annum. When this furnace has been tested in practice with the view of discovering possible faults, the intention is to erect also other furnaces of the same size and capacity.

#### Recent Spectroscopic Study of the Sun.

The physical interpretation of the changes produced in the lines of the solar spectrum, by terrestrial weather conditions and by passing from one to another point of the sun's disk, is still very uncertain. While the sun's atmosphere is so dense that the changes of temperature occurring in the stormy solar atmosphere, nor does he admit that the peculiarities of spark spectra are characteristic of the sun's atmosphere. Electric vibration of atoms may be excited in a cold gas, as is proved by the aurora. Whitaker attributes the observed changes in the spectrum to great pressure. Curtis and others, on the other hand, have taken the usual interpretation, which attributes the changes to high temperature, radial velocity and chemical action. Evershed does not admit that pressures much greater than atmospheric can exist in the sun, even at the bottom of the reversing layer. This opinion is based upon the sharpness of spectral lines in general. But the hypothesis implies that in the sun gravitation is everywhere opposed by repulsive forces. Until recently the spectro-heliograph was applied chiefly to the lines H and K. These were obtained images of the foculi, those bright clouds of calcium vapor which almost cover the slit of the sun's face. Since 1905, following the example of Hale, the red line of hydrogen, which shows entirely different forms, has also been employed. This has led to the discovery of long dark filaments which normally persist for several weeks, but which sometimes disappear or change rapidly near very active spots. According to Deslandres these filaments represent tornadoes with horizontal axis. They are exhibited especially by the middle part of the line H $\alpha$ , which corresponds to the upper limit of hydrogen vapor. The marginal portions of the same line show dark foculi, which are reversals of the calcium foculi.

The photographs made by Hale, at Mt. Wilson, with this same line, show the spots surrounded by cyclonic structures, which exhibit opposite rotations in the north and south hemispheres. These spirals are far less frequently observed in ordinary photographs. Can they be trajectories of material particles? The first evidence, furnished by Hale, consists in the doubling and the polarization of the spectral lines in the interior of the spots. These phenomena suggest the circulation of electrified matter in a magnetic field. Evershed sought further evidence by playing the slit of the spectrograph across a spot near the sun's limb. In this case radial velocities in opposite directions should be found on opposite sides of the spot. Instead of this, however, Evershed found numerous and persistent indications of a tangential movement, always directed from the center of the spot. These results were obtained chiefly with the lines of iron. Possibly both

movements coexist at different levels. In the white-light spectrum the centrifugal force in a stratum of hydrogen, the centrifugal force in metallic vapors beneath. Bechert, who discovered that the dark lines of the solar spectrum become bright or reversed in a narrow stratum at the base of the chromosphere during a total eclipse, contended that this reversal could be observed at ordinary times. Hale and Adams have confirmed his view by photographing the reversed spectrum. Their success appears to be due to the very delicate adjustments which enabled them to keep the slit of the spectrograph accurately tangent to the sun's limb. The wave lengths of 184 of the lines were found exactly equal to those of the corresponding dark lines of the chromosphere spectrum. This perfect agreement could not be expected if, as Julius suggested, the bright lines are due to the light of the photosphere, affected by anomalous dispersion.

To blacken light woods make a preparation of an ounce of borax, dissolved in a quart of water, with two ounces of alcohol. The liquid is then to be boiled until a perfect solution is obtained, then mix in two teaspoonfuls of glycerine, and completely by adding a sufficient quantity of alcohol to make the mixture opaque. The liquid, when well mixed, is to be applied to the wood.

### Discussions in Aeronautics at the University of Paris.

A Chair of Aeronautics has been established at the University of Paris by M. Paul Sabatier, and is occupied by Prof. Mouchet, who has announced the programme of his course of lectures. The professor intends by reviving to the scientific public M. Sabatier's endorsement would have been employed far more usefully for the development of aerial navigation if some direct encouragement had been given to constructors, who are compelled to make very costly machines or to the brave aeronauts who risk their lives in these experiments. The empiricism which necessarily rules in the beginning of every industry should now be superseded by a methodical and systematic interpretation of observed facts. The object of this lecture course will be to expound as logically as possible the results which can fairly be considered as certain. Without entering into very recondite theoretical considerations, the lectures will still be far from "popular" or elementary. Finally, the development of the special aeronautics library already possessed by the University, and the formation of a collection of small models of aeroplanes and dirigible balloons, will supplement the instruction given by the lectures. The professor will not confine his attention to theoretical speculations and laboratory experiments, but will follow in detail the experiments of constructors and the trial flights of aeriostats, noting in each case the progress achieved and endeavoring to account for the failures.

### Scientific American Prizes for Invention.

The Scientific American offers \$100 in three prizes, to be awarded to the inventor who gives the most accurate account of how he conceived his invention, how he developed it in actual practice, and how he succeeded in selling it. This sum of \$100 to be distributed as follows: \$50 to the best account, \$15 to the second best account, \$35 to the third best account.

There is no limitation as to subject matter of the invention. In other words, the invention may be a household utensil, a piece of electrical apparatus, an improvement in railway construction, a metallurgical process, etc. The following conditions, however, must be observed:

- 1 The invention must be patented.
- 2 The inventor must have actually sold his patent, and the invention must have been commercially introduced.
- 3 The account of the inventor's success must not be longer than 800 words.
- 4 The composition, letter, or article must be typewritten on one side of the paper only.
- 5 The inventor must sign his offering with a pseudonym, and inclose it in a plain envelope, upon which the pseudonym is written. A second sealed envelope must be provided, bearing on the outside the pseudonym under which the offering is submitted, and containing the real name and address of the contestant.
- 6 Contestants must address their offerings to Inventors' Prize Editor, Scientific American, 361 Broadway, New York City.
- 7 The contest remains open until August 15th, 1910. Judges will select the essays which, in their opinion, have won the three prizes and give them to the Editor of the Scientific American, who will thereupon open the sealed envelopes containing the true names of the contestants, and notify the winners of the prizes.
- 8 The Editor of the Scientific American has the right to publish the prize winning articles or letters as well as those which are rejected.
- 9 Unsuccessful letters cannot be returned. It is therefore urged that the contestants preserve copies of their contributions.

Official Meteorological Station, New York, N. Y., May, 1910.

Atmospheric pressure, Highest, 30.40; lowest, 29.46, mean, 29.96. Temperature, Highest, 81; date, 24th, lowest, 44, date, 1st, mean of warmest day, 71, date, 23rd; coolest day, 43, date, 9th and 10th, mean for May for 40 years, 61.5. Accumulated dewiness since January 1st, 1.98. Greatest precipitation, 1.16, in 1906, least, 0.33, in 1902. Wind, Prevailing direction, north-west, mean temperature, 8.11 miles, average hourly velocity, 11.9; maximum velocity, 39 miles per hour. Weather, Clear days, 8, partly cloudy, 9; cloudy, 14; on which 0.01 or more of precipitation occurred, 11. Mean relative humidity, 64.8. Dew point for 24th, 53th, 55th, 59th; thunderstorm, 24th, 14th, 21st, 29th. Mean temperature of the spring, 59.7, normal, 48.30. Precipitation of the spring, 1.06; normal, 1.53.

### Correspondence.

#### REDUCTION-GEAR TURBINE TESTS.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

Your article "A Way Out of the Marine Turbine Dilemma" in your issue of the 12th of February places before the general reader throughout the world an epoch-making invention. There can be little doubt as to its great value, and any discussion that hastens the proof thereof may be well-nigh superfluous.

You refer to the difficulty of ascertaining the actual horsepower of a turbine as a factor of uncertainty in the calculation of the efficiency of the combination, and suggest that a reliable check upon the power given is afforded by computations based on the rise of temperature of the oil. But the heat causing this rise of temperature is, at the same time, communicated to the large surrounding mass of metal, and the heat thus taken away from the oil should be calculated, if possible, or allowed for.

There is another way less open to question for measuring the loss of power due to friction. Let the driver shaft be made the driver at 300 revolutions per minute by a reciprocating engine directly coupled thereto, so that the piston shall be driven. It will then be easy to apply a brake to the piston shaft, and ascertain the power transmitted upon a definite basis of comparison with the power exercised on the other shaft.

The results of such a reciprocal test will not merely be "well reasoned," but will convince the world. They will certainly be most satisfactory, but below an efficiency of 85%.

G. STEUKLAND  
Port, West Australia.

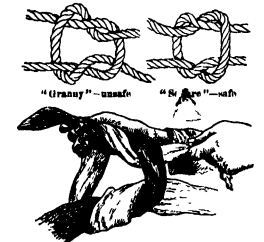
#### The Safe Knot in Case of Fire.

To the Editor of the Scientific American:

In your issue of May 29th, page 441, is a figure which would be liable to lead to harm if followed in case of fire. The right-hand upper illustration shows a "granny" knot, which is a loose or slipping knot. The one which should be used is the "square" knot, in which the end and strand both pass below the loop, or both above it, instead of one above and one below as shown. The square knot will not slip.

F. H. HALL.

[There can be no doubt that our correspondent is



THE CORRECT WAY OF Tying

correct. The "granny" knot would be unsafe for the serious use in which it would be subjected in case of fire. We therefore publish the foregoing diagram in order to correct any liability to mistakes.—EDITH.]

#### New Cometary Theories.

Neither the comets seen for the first time in 1909, nor the periodic comets of Perrine and Winnecke, which reappeared nearly in their computed places, offers any special interest. Halley's comet, reappeared in the position calculated by Cowell and Cromwell. It was first detected in a photograph made by Wolf, at Heidelberg, on September 11th, but was subsequently found on a plate exposed by Keeler on August 21st. Its brightness increased slowly until the end of the year. Its spectrum, first observed in December, showed the absorption bands of nitrogen and oxygen, with indications of self-luminosity due to incandescent gases.

The past year is marked especially by the results of the retrospective study of the spectroscopic and direct photographs of Morehouse's comet (1808 C). Subsequently, the comet and several other comets exhibited several divergent bright spots accompanied by streamers darker than the sky, as if the space surrounding the comet were filled with luminous matter. Subsequently, the comet and several other comets exhibited a diminution of brightness at the point of intersection, as if one tail absorbed the light of the other. Several times the tail appeared to break up into knots, which were new comets and not streamers. This kind of knot with increasing velocity. Com photographs of successive photographs showed that the compound tail opened and closed as if the whole struc-

ture were rotating about a central axis. The spectroscopic combinations made by Barnard appear to indicate the presence of tails of helical form, but Barnard suggests that this effect may be due to changes of form in the intervals between exposures. Barnard also observes that the apparent rotation of the tails may also be an illusion. It is sufficient to suppose that the head rotates slowly and projects particles rapidly in a plane which is inclined to the axis of rotation. The trajectories of particles, force emanating from the head and from other points must cooperate with solar attraction and repulsion. The occurrence of four successive outbursts of positive comets suggests the influence of a medium of variable composition, formed by particles ejected by the sun and made visible by the passage of comets, either by electrification or by carrying cometary matter with them. This hypothesis would explain the presence of streamers and certain other lines in the spectra of nearly all comets. On this theory the apparent boundary of a comet's tail like that of a flame, would be simply the locus of a change of physical state.

In the spectrum of this comet, E. C. Pickering found six absorption bands corresponding to the principal lines of hydrogen. At Mendon and Harvard a faint continuous spectrum indicated the presence of a gas. Servé Deslandres regards the three pairs of bands as doublets, due to the Doppler effect and deduces for the cometary matter a velocity of more than 1,200 miles per second but the presence of a strong blue line in addition, leads Campbell and Albrecht to reject this interpretation.

#### The current Supplement.

A thoughtful yet popularly written article on Heredity by Prof. W. R. Castle of Harvard University opens the current Supplement, No. 179. The article shows that before any serious attempt can be made to improve the human race, considered as an assemblage of animals possessed of certain desirable physical and intellectual attributes. It is obvious that we must know something about heredity in general and how, in particular, each of the desired physical and intellectual attributes is produced. In his article he reviews briefly some of the problems which the study of heredity presents and summarizes the results obtained from their consideration.—Mr. William Crawford concludes his excellent consideration of Irish linen and their manufacture—Shelton or lace is one of those aids to civilization about which there has been too much of an atmosphere of mystery and romance. Mr. C. Clarke Nugent removes much of this mystery in a strictly scientific account of shellac and the lac industry.—A Ross's instructive article on how to build a model puppet ship is concluded.—A critical consideration of the Mallet locomotive in service is published.—The chemical regulation of the processes of the body by means of activities, vitamins, and hormones is discussed by Prof. William H. Howell of Johns Hopkins University.—Mr. William R. Starck's paper on Measuring Instruments of Long Ago is concluded.—We are very apt to regard the tail of an animal as merely "the other end" of the body, but Nature seems to have early extended the member highly and to have made it her most efficient instrument of locomotion. Many curious facts about these uses of tails are described by Mr. James Newton Barber.—Mr. W. P. Denning summarizes our knowledge of the planet Mercury.—The usual Electrical News Engineering Notes and Trade Notes will be found in their accustomed places.

Wanted: Information About Disinfectant Patents.

The Scientific American has always made a practice of exposing the snares and devices of the patent promoter as well as the fraudulent patent of attorney. Although the subject is by no means new to the readers of the Scientific American, it is one of which all inventors should be thoroughly informed. The Editor of the Scientific American would like to receive from readers of this journal, letters in which they narrate their personal experiences with dishonest patent attorneys. Such letters will be published in due course and should not only be of interest to them selves but should serve as a warning, thereby protecting others against such frauds.

Antique Greenish Bronze (Without Iron Powder).—This is a greenish-black coating, with tints of green patina. Rub thumb over the surface with a greenish white color with turpentine oil, mix with copal varnish and apply to the object, coating the hollow portions especially. If there is rich decoration cut this all over and dry. Now rub over a cleaner, finer, and some black pigment to a greenish black color with turpentine oil mix with copal varnish and coat over all the raised portions leaving the hollows untouched, so that the raised portions in the hollows will have the appearance of copper oxide. Glaze after drying, with spirit lacquer. Handle the brush just as in ordinary bronzing.

# THE ALBANY-NEW YORK AEROPLANE FLIGHT

## HOW CURTISS COMPLETED FOR THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN TROPHY AND THE NEW YORK WORLD PRIZE



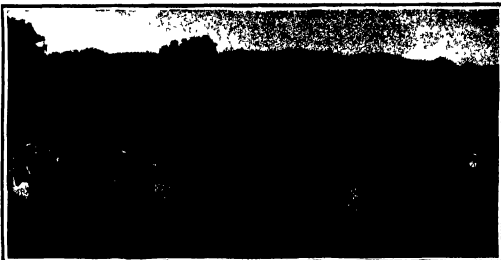
Of the three attempts that have been made to fly from New York to Albany, or vice versa, the first two were made last fall by dirigible balloons, and were unsuccessful, while the third attempt was made recently by an aeroplane, and resulted in a brilliant prize-winning flight.

The New York World, which so generously donated a prize of \$10,000 last summer for the performance of this feat during the Hudson-Putnam celebration afterward extended the time within which it could be completed for to October 10th, 1910. Only a few weeks ago after the exciting aeroplane race of Panthan and White from London to Manchester, England, for the \$70,000 prize of the London Daily Mail it was decided to amend the rules and permit the making of two stops en route, while the time limit for the completion of the trip was set at 24 hours. As soon as the modifications were announced, Glenn H.

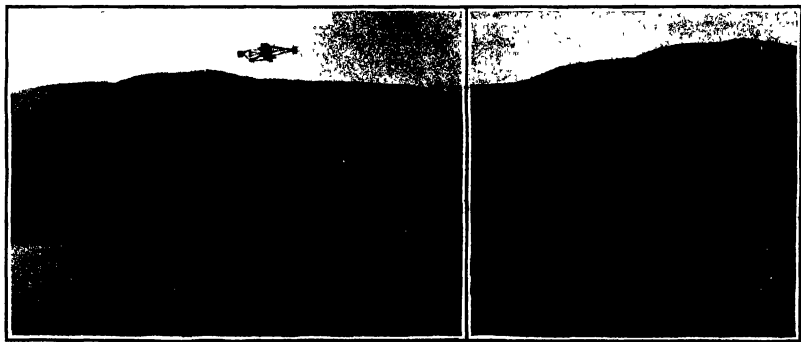
After making a number of flights over Lake Keuka, at Hammondsport, N. Y., and landing successfully upon the water, Mr. Curtiss shipped his aeroplane to Albany and took a prospecting trip on the steamboat from the capital to the metropolis. He found practically no suitable landing places on the river banks throughout the entire journey. At Poughkeepsie, however, a mile back from the east shore, he selected a landing place on the farm of Mr. W. F. Gill. Upon reaching New York Mr. Curtiss gave notice that he

would attempt to win the cash prize of the World and also the Scientific American Trophy for the third consecutive time, which would give him the cup permanently. He then returned to Albany to superintend the assembling of his biplane. This was accomplished in a tent pitched upon Van Rensselaer island, a mile south of the railroad bridge at Albany. A heavy rain caused delay in assembling the biplane and kept the aviator from starting on Thursday, May 26th, while Friday the flight was impossible of accomplishment because of stormy wind.

Early Sunday morning Mr. Curtiss went to the island. Everything was in readiness for the flight, and the weather appeared to be perfect, but just as the aviator was about to start a wind sprang up, and he was obliged to again postpone his attempt. Sunday morning dawned bright and clear without any signs of wind, and after waiting till 7 A. M. to see if the wind would increase, Mr. Curtiss started three minutes thereafter. Circling to the north so as to pass within the city limits of Albany just below the railroad bridge, the aviator headed down the river at a 50-mile clip against a wind



Just before the start at Albany.



The biplane passing over Jones Island, the government explosive manufactory.

Curtiss passing down the Hudson at 50 miles an hour.

Curtiss, the first winner of the Bennett cup race in France last year and twice the winner of the Scientific American Trophy, began experiments with a new and powerful biplane at Hammondsport, N. Y., with a view to landing upon water. He had already experimented last fall upon rising from the water, and, although unable to accomplish this, had attained a speed of 30 miles an hour with his small biplane resting on pontoons and driven by its air propeller and 35 horse power 4-cylinder Curtiss aeromarine motor. It was therefore a comparatively easy matter to fit his new and larger biplane with cylindrical floats and an airtight canvas bag running the length of the wood strut that connects the front and rear wheels.

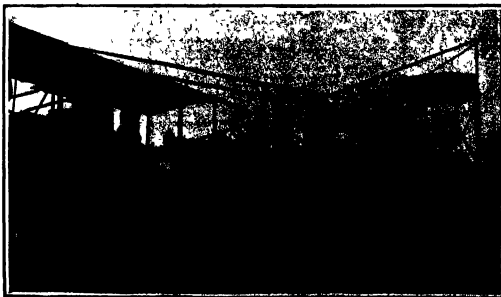


Photo copyright 1910 by Photo News Co.

The landing at Governor's Island, N. Y.

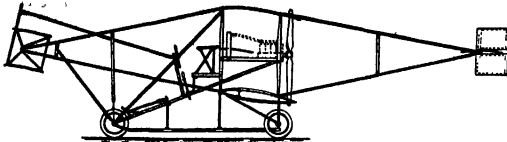
THE ALBANY-NEW YORK AEROPLANE FLIGHT.

of 4 or 5 miles an hour velocity. His run quite rapidly to a height of 1,000 feet, and followed the course of the river for 75 miles to Poughkeepsie. As he came in sight of the railway bridge at this point, he was flying at an elevation of about 600 feet. He increased his height somewhat as he neared this 212-foot-high structure, which he passed several hundred feet above. Three miles beyond the bridge he turned inland on the east side of the river, and landed at 8:30 on the field at Olean, which he had previously selected. The 754 miles had been covered in 1 hour and 32 minutes at a rate of speed of 32.5 miles an hour. The prize money of \$10,000 was paid him at once.

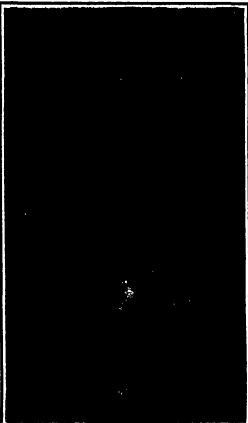
After this preliminary was over, the aviator began his flight. He was to fly at a height of 500 to 600 feet, in order to replenish the tanks of his biplane before continuing the journey. This maneuver was accomplished at a stop of one hour at 9:30 A. M. he restarted on his eventful flight and, making out over the river, he headed toward New York at a somewhat slower gait than before, owing to the curves and wind. During the balance of the journey, he maintained a height of from 500 to 600 feet. He did not fly as high as during the first part, since, in passing through the Highlands, he found that it was better to fly at a lower elevation. Upon reaching Newburg, Mr. Curtiss could see from the smoke that the wind had changed and was blowing from the west, or directly across his course. As the velocity was not great, however, this did not cause him any uneasiness.

Soon after passing Storm King, the 1,350-foot mountain that juts out into the river just above West Point, the daring aviator experienced a sudden down draft of air that caused the machine to drop so rapidly that it seemed to fall away beneath him. At the same time, it tipped at a sharp angle to one side, owing to one and catching more of the downward current. With great presence of mind Mr. Curtiss directed his front horizontal rudder sharply downward, in order to gain speed by making a dive and thus enable his balancing planes to become effective, which, of course, they were not when in a current of air traveling perpendicular to them. This maneuver was successful, and he was able to right the machine. He passed over Long Island, near West Point, as shown in one of our photographs, but for the greater part of his trip he followed the middle of the river. He made a practice, however, of keeping to the leeward side of the river as much as possible. Thus, when Peekskill was reached, he found that the wind had again shifted so that it was blowing from the northeast, he crossed over to the Jersey side, and followed the stream above the Palisades. When Spuyten Duyvil was reached, a considerable height to be level ground, was in reality a fairly steep incline, so that it was necessary for him to jump out of his machine the moment it came to a standstill, and to hold it from sliding back down the hill. Afterward, when assistance arrived, he pushed the machine to the top, where there was a sharp terrace, and after making a stop of over an hour, he started off this terrace after a very short run. The machine scored off the terrace without dropping to any great extent, showing the possibilities of starting from a cliff.

Mr. Curtiss's second stop was occasioned by the discovery that his lubricating oil was almost gone. By landing upon the north end of Manhattan Island, he would accomplish the flight from Albany to New York with but one stop, while two were allowed. Therefore, so as to make sure of winning the prize, he made the short detour and landed at 11:25 A. M.—one hour and nine minutes after his start from Poughkeepsie. The distance covered in this second stage was, over the course followed, 55½ miles, so that the speed was 48½ miles an hour. The remaining 14 miles to Governor's Island was covered in 22 minutes, the second start being made at 11:48 A. M. and his arrival in New York at 12:10 P. M. Afterward, for him last full taking place a few minutes after noon. On this last stage of the flight, Mr. Curtiss maintained a height of approximately 500 feet. He descended rapidly as he neared Governor's Island, and skidded over the sandy stretch of made land at a height of about 25 feet, almost till he reached the shore. One of our photographs shows him a minute or two after he alighted. At Spuyten Duyvil he left off the two cylindrical floats—one on each side of the machine below the lower planes—and that these are not to be seen in the photograph. One of the other photographs—which we reproduce, however, shows them—shows a view of the machine from the rear, showing the floats. The photograph shown to this side shows the machine from the rear, showing the floats.



Side elevation of Curtiss biplane, showing relative positions of planes, rudders, etc.



The Scientific American Trophy, the first prize offered for successful flights with heavier-than-air machines.

**Curtiss**

RECEIVED  
New York, May 24/10

We have club of members, but it will be glad to accept of you.

25 N. Y. St., N. Y.

I hereby make official entry for the Scientific American Trophy, under the prize for 1910. It is my intention to start on a cross country flight from Albany, N. Y., on Thursday morning, May 26, 1910.

I will use a Curtiss monoplane of the following description: weight 800 lbs.; surface area, 250 square feet; motor 50 H. P. 8 cylinder, water cooled; longest time the machine has been operated in one flight 30 minutes.

If there are any men connected with this entry, they will be paid in accordance, May 26.

Very truly yours,  
Hubert H. Hamilton  
Hubert H. Hamilton, N. Y. City

Copy sent to the Scientific American, 10 Broadway, N. Y.

Mr. Curtiss's notice that he would compete for the Scientific American Trophy.

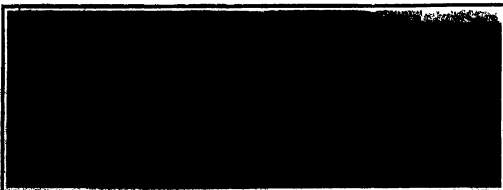
than those that were actually used, which were about 7 inches in diameter and 7 feet in length. The second of the photographs, showing the 31 planes in flight, these floats can be seen projecting from the back of the lower plane. Together with the air inflated bag strewn behind along the lower rudder, they had the effect of buoyancy to keep the machine from sinking should Mr. Curtiss have been compelled to alight in the Hudson. An examination of his machine showed that the air tank had sprung a leak and had not been an indicating gauge constantly before him he would not have known that his supply was rapidly diminishing, and thus he might have had his motor set.

The biplane with which Mr. Curtiss accomplished his epoch-making flight is very similar to the machine with which he won the Bennett Cup last fall at Rheims. It differs from the latter in having somewhat larger rudders and balancing planes, and also in the extension of the upper plane 30 inches beyond the lower plane at each end of the machine. This differential plane idea was first tried a short time ago by Henry Farman, and was embodied in the machine used by Faillan in his flight from London to Manchester. It tends to give the aeroplane a certain amount of inherent transverse stability. The total supporting surface in the main planes is 248 square feet, and the weight of the machine complete is 950 pounds including aviator fuel and oil. As a result of this the weight carried per square foot of supporting surface is 4.02 pounds. This means that the machine must travel at a speed of 40 miles an hour along the ground before it will lift. In order to attain this speed, a powerful 50-horsepower motor of 50 horsepower is used. The 7-foot diameter, 6-foot pitch propeller mounted upon the engine crankshaft makes 1,100 R.P.M. while the machine is in flight, and gives a pull, when the machine is held stationary on the ground, of over 300 pounds. This is, we believe somewhat better than the thrust obtained from the Gnome 50-horsepower motor used by Farman and others in their aeroplanes.

The longest flight which Mr. Curtiss had formerly made with his new biplane was a flight of 28 minutes duration above Lake Keuka at Hammondsport, N. Y., in his try-out of the machine. The greatest care was taken in re-assembling the machine at Van Hook Island, to see that all nuts were properly washed, cotter pinned, and covered with varnish, so that they would not work loose. Some idea of the strains that must be undergone by a machine in flight can be had when one learns that Mr. Curtiss's biplane was suddenly dropped 40 to 50 feet while in flight, by the downward current of air mentioned, and then quickly made to support itself again by a dive of considerably greater length. One reason for the success that the Curtiss machine has met with is undoubtedly the neat and strong manner in which it is put together. There are no bent struts and loose guy wires, such as we have noted in one of the well known foreign biplanes that was recently brought to this country, but every thing is put together in a thoroughly workmanlike manner, and consequently there have been no accidents.

In making his great flight, Mr. Curtiss also competed for the Scientific American Trophy, which is to be awarded this year for the longest cross country flight. The first record for 1910 therefore stands at 74½ miles but it is probable that this will be lengthened considerably before the end of the year.

The average speed made by Mr. Curtiss from start to finish of his flight from Albany to Manhattan Island—a distance over the course followed of 128 miles—was 50½ miles an hour. Including the final leg of 14½ miles from 207th Street and the Hudson River to Governor's Island (14½ miles) this average falls to 49½ miles an hour. The actual air line distance between the starting and finishing points is 108.34 miles, so that using this as a basis, the average speed from point to point was but 47.01 miles an hour, which is the same as Mr. Curtiss averaged in the Bennett Cup race at Rheims. As he no doubt covered more than 136.11 miles, it seems his new machine is faster than the Rheims racer with which Hamilton is making flights at Mineola, L. I.



View of Curtiss machine showing floats to keep it afloat on water.

THE ALBANY-NEW YORK AEROPLANE FLIGHT.

## An Aerial Torpedo.

BY W. A. JONES.

One of the most remarkable demonstrations of the possibilities of "wireless" has been made in London last month, when Mr. Thomas Raymond Phillips, a Liverpool engineer, conducted a series of experiments on a small sail with a dirigible balloon entirely manipulated and controlled from the earth. These tests were made at the Hippodrome one of London's largest theaters. Mr. Phillips employed a dirigible on the lines of the Zeppelin, and only 20 feet long. The model complete, weighed about ten pounds and the aeronaut was filled with hydrogen.

During the demonstration the inventor stood on the stage of the theater while his machine manuevered about over the auditorium. He had by his side a keyboard something like that of a typewriter but rather larger, and in reality composed of a number of push switches, above this was a small transmitter similar to that used in ordinary wireless telegraphy. By merely pressing the keys Mr. Phillips showed that he could make his dirigible do anything he liked. He would press a switch over and the machine would promptly rise, the situation of another key would produce a descent. Forward and backward motion was also obtained with perfect certainty as well as voyaging which involved very little in the way of triage steering. The experiments lasted some hours but never once did the model fail to do what the inventor had announced it was about to do. The most effective demonstration however, was that in which the use of such a machine in warfare was shown. The car of the dirigible had a trap door floor under the control of the operator, who after manuevering the machine over a certain spot, opened a switch which caused the trapdoor to open and allowed a number of paper bombs to fall down.

The mechanism of the invention is extremely simple and one that could be made perfectly reliable. In the car of the dirigible are a number of coils wired to different electric wave lengths, and these control small switches which put into and throw out in action two sets of propellers the trapdoor, and the system of lamps whereby the airship can be lit up when desired. The accumulators for working the propellers and lighting the lamps are carried in the car. The directional control of the airship is effected in a horizontal plane by a pair of propellers hung out from each side of the car on outriggers similar to those of the "Zeppelin." Either or both of these can be driven, and they can also be reversed (either singly or together) so that the machine can be steered to the right and to the left, in a straight course, or reversed back in its own tracks without turning round.

Two horizontal propellers can be made smaller than the dirigible screws are also attached by outriggers to the "masts," and provide the means for control in a vertical plane. The machine is so balanced as to be approximately equal in weight to the air it displaces, consequently, when the horizontal propellers are not working it neither rises nor falls, but can be made to ascend or descend by pulling them in motion. Thus by using one vertical propeller and the horizontal one the machine can be caused to move in a spiral path, and by cutting out the vertical screw it can be made to rise straight up.

The switches whereby the machine is controlled alter the wave length of the electricity produced at the transmitter, all the other switches on the airship being tuned to different wave lengths.

The demonstrations have been so successful that the British War Office have investigated the matter, and it is understood that they have taken the invention up. At any rate, trials with a full-sized machine are shortly to be made and if these are successful the invention will be bought by the government. The dimensions of the full-sized war machine will be 60 feet long and 6 feet in diameter, and it will be capable of carrying nearly a cubic yard and a half of explosives while its radius of action will be well over 100 miles. Its speed will be about thirty miles per hour.

# MR. EDWIN GOULD OFFERS \$15,000 TO THE SUCCESSFUL DESIGNER AND DEMONSTRATOR OF A SAFE HEAVIER-THAN-AIR FLYING MACHINE EQUIPPED WITH MORE THAN ONE MOTOR AND MORE THAN ONE PROPELLER.

The facsimile letter of Mr. Edwin Gould, printed on this page, in which \$15,000 is offered for the best successful heavier-than-air flying machine, driven by more than one motor and one propeller, speaks for itself. It may be pointed out, however, that Mr. Gould, in offering his prize, has been moved by other considerations than those involved in a sporting contest. Races, long-distance flights, speed tests, and other record breaking performances, have no doubt done much to bring the flying machine prominently before the public, but it must be admitted that, besides whetting the natural human appetite for competition and driving home the truth that the flying machine is destined to play an important part in future human affairs, such contests add little to the art but little.

It is Mr. Gould's primary intention to further aeronautic invention and with that end in view he offers a prize not for the fastest flying machine, but for a

*St. Louis Southwestern Railway Company.*  
Office of the President.  
Edwin Gould, President.  
405 Broadway,  
New York.  
June 2, 1910.

To the Editor,

The Scientific American,  
New York City.

Dear Sir—

In order to promote progress in aviation, I offer through the Scientific American, a prize of \$15,000, which is to be given to the inventor who designs and demonstrates in this country the best heavier-than-air flying machine equipped with more than one propeller and with more than one independent motor, in such manner, that the motors can be operated together or independently.

My object in offering the prize is to encourage the invention of a heavier-than-air flying machine which will be able to continue in safety on its course, even though one of the driving devices should break down.

In order that the efficiency of the inventions may be thoroughly tested, it will be necessary to subject them to endurance tests of stipulated length of time or distance.

Full conditions governing the award of the prize will be announced in a later issue of the Scientific American.

Very truly yours,

*Edwin Gould*

## MR. EDWIN GOULD'S OFFER OF A \$15,000 AVIATION PRIZE

type of flying machine which has thus far not been constructed. Absolute safety must certainly be attained before a flying machine can ever become even a popular vehicle of pleasure, and the attainment of safety is the chief object which Mr. Gould has in view. The conditions which will govern the novel contest which will be inaugurated by Mr. Gould's magnificent offer have not been decided upon as yet. They will require deliberation. It is hardly likely that we shall be able to publish them for three or four weeks. In the meanwhile, the Editor will gladly consider any suggestions which the readers of this journal may make so that conditions may be drawn which will be fair and which will best serve the object of the prize.

Kinetic energy is the power stored in a moving object which keeps it in motion. By way of illustration, suppose a railway train running along a straight, level stretch of track, the train being driven to its power limit. If the source of power, say the steam pressure, is now suddenly removed by closing the throttle, the train will continue to run or "coast" for a long distance, due to its kinetic energy, gradually reducing in speed until the energy is exhausted and the train stops.

## Rising Windy of the Sun.

The sun can be studied with telescopic eyes only by the possession of solar telescopes, consequently the announced discoveries are numerous; but astronomers are constantly placing their chief reliance on the statistical results of precise measurements and daily and long-continued observations, and they do not accept the physical theories advanced until after a long period of probation. Recent data which have been admitted and used for many years are exempt from criticism. Thus, the slowness of the sun's rotation determined by Carrington fifty years ago, which are still used in the reduction of the photographs taken daily at the English observatories, have been called into question. There has been some discussion of the measurements made by Peters between 1880 and 1887, which fill the gap between Carrington's work and the Greenwich photographs. He reaches the surprising conclusion that the sun spots of the northern and southern hemisphere revolve about two different axes, which make with each other an angle of 6 minutes. The spots appear to be affected by a general drift which changed direction about 1885.

The hypothesis of a planetary influence on sun spots has been often discussed and generally rejected. In its favor, however, may be cited the proved fact that the number of sun spots which was announced for 1905, was delayed nearly two years, and that this retardation had been predicted by Brown as a consequence of the motions of Jupiter and Saturn.

The solar activity gradually decreased in 1909, as had been expected. Nevertheless, a group of spots remained visible from November, 1908 to April, 1909. The group which appeared in September, 1908, was found to be connected with a violent magnetic storm. Lockyer's photographs made with the spectroheliograph, show that the principal spot was gradually obliterated by clouds of calcium which exhibited a cyclonic structure thirty hours before the maximum of the magnetic disturbance. Since Mitchell Smith observed that an extraordinary outburst of activity in the same spot was quickly followed by a violent magnetic agitation of the magnetic needle. This group of spots affected the earth's magnetism in four successive perturbations. In the first of which it produced two disturbances at intervals of five days. This fact suggests the influence of two limited and divergent beams analogous to the double tails of certain comets.

The tendency to recurrence at intervals of 27 or 28 days, is well established for magnetic storms and aurora. The question has been asked whether other terrestrial phenomena do not similarly show the influence of the sun's rotation. From the records of cyclones in the Indian Ocean, Maudslayi finds that an interval of twenty days is of common occurrence between the appearance of the first storm of a series.

The first results of the total eclipse of 1908 have been published. The report of Macdonald's expedition may be taken as a basis of comparison. At such epochs, of great extent in the middle latitudes, but that it was distinguished by certain features from all previously observed coronas. The coronal rays or streamers showed no connection with the protuberances.

The United States during February produced a storm at a rate which equaled 31,650,000 gross ton at intervals of 100,000 tons, and in December about 11,450,000 tons. In commenting on these figures, the Iron Age considers it is questionable whether the February rate will be maintained during March, since the daily capacity of coke and anthracite furnaces is less at the beginning of the month was 84,854 tons, whereas the daily rate of production for February was 85,615 tons. It is hard to realize, the journal remarks, "that in February the production was more than 40 per cent above that of February of last year, and nearly 3 1/2 times that of February two years ago, and yet that so little metal is pressing on the market." It is not surprising that the steel industry is in a panic, the rate of the country to absorb its iron at the present rate throughout the year."

# DR. ROBERT KOCH, THE FATHER OF PREVENTIVE MEDICINE

BY JOHN B. HUBER, A. M., M. D.

Dr. Robert Koch died on May 27th last. To estimate the value of his work, we can only consider how humanity suffered from diseases before his time.

Before the beneficent inoculations of Jenner, epidemics of smallpox devastated vast regions, despoiling cities and wiping out whole towns and villages. Nearly every year one met was a pock-marked survivor. The dreadful history of the bubonic plague is lost in the mists of antiquity. To go no further back—an epidemic of it was the last of those seven plagues that afflicted Egypt. These 10,000 Israelites and Philistines at Beth-Shehem, and those 70,000 others were destroyed by the microscopic *Bacillus pestis*. Before and since the Trojan war (in which this germ did its greatest execution), throughout the middle ages, and indeed up to our time, scores of epidemics of the bubonic plague have wrought ghastly havoc. One of these, the Black Death of the fourteenth century, destroyed most miserably (so Gibbon computed) one-fourth the population of the then known world.

Malaria, though not so death-dealing an agency, has nevertheless dreadfully afflicted the works of humankind. To cite but the one historic instance given by W. H. I. Jones of Cambridge. As is so often the case in history, the conquering Greeks under Alexander were conquered by the India they invaded, and its weapon was one much more potent than the sword—it was the microscopic malarial plasmodium. Upon its threads the Greeks began to "lose much of their intellectual vigor and manly strength."

Consider finally tuberculosis—consumption—which has probably always afflicted mankind. At any rate Hippocrates twenty-two centuries ago, wrote of it as the disease which above all others caused the most suffering and the greatest number of deaths. The dreadful infections here mentioned, though more gruesomely picturesque in their ravages, have been dwarfed by consumption. In the nineteenth century fourteen million died in war, by bullet and steel and camp diseases, during the same period thirty millions succumbed to consumption. From time immemorial every third or fourth adult—in some communities every adult—has succumbed to insidious phthisis. Yet white have introduced this disease among negro "brethren," who die of it in greater numbers than we do, and among our Indian "wards" who are fast disappearing by reason of our tuberculosis, aided and abetted by our "fire water." Who has not, either in his father or among his friends, had to endure some experience of the "Great White Plague"? Think of it! Between adolescence and the fifty-fifth year, in those years when young men and young women contemplate marriage, when wives should be strong to rear their children, when husbands should be strong to maintain their homes, when we should be strong to do the world's work, in those most precious years tuberculosis has throughout the centuries been claiming every third or fourth of our race. Consider how often the wage earner has first succumbed; and how, through the many months and the years of this chronic disease, his family must endure the privations imposed by it, and oftentimes have themselves become its victims. The world, moreover, has lost treasures immeasurable by reason of the untimely mortality of men and women of genius in tuberculosis, "death's direct door to most hard students, divines, physicians, philosophers, deep lawyers, scholars to religions." Tuberculosis has ever been "the most cruel a devastating world and epidemic

factor as it had been a death dealing infection, every year our nation alone has been sustaining by reason of it a monetary loss of more than a thousand millions of dollars.

Reflect upon all these things, and then turn the mind to the year of Koch's birth—1843. In that year Pasteur entered the university. And let us premise here that in science great names are landmarks, and the owners of these names have traveled and gazed in the fields where many a devoted and now forgotten laborer has delved and sown and perhaps sweated blood. It should indeed be a comfortable observation that in science at least no man works in vain. Full many a one has given his whole life to establishing a fact, or indeed only an

of the earth, Koch clearly demonstrated how this business was to be done.

When Koch was seventeen he persuaded his father to get him a microscope. Possessed of this most congenial companion, he set about perfecting other technical means of investigation. For even genius cannot work effectively without good tools. After attaining his doctorate in medicine he became a simple country doctor, utilizing the time which—nursed to relate—every beginner in practice has a plenty, in scientific study, experimentation, research, and writing. In those years he laid all the foundation of his future greatness. At that time he was not enervated in any world-famous institution, nor had he millions at his back. Such aids to success are not to be

dreaded, yet it is amazing how frequently genius, burning unquenched in the service of humankind, has managed to get along without them, how they never avail at all in the absence of the right man.

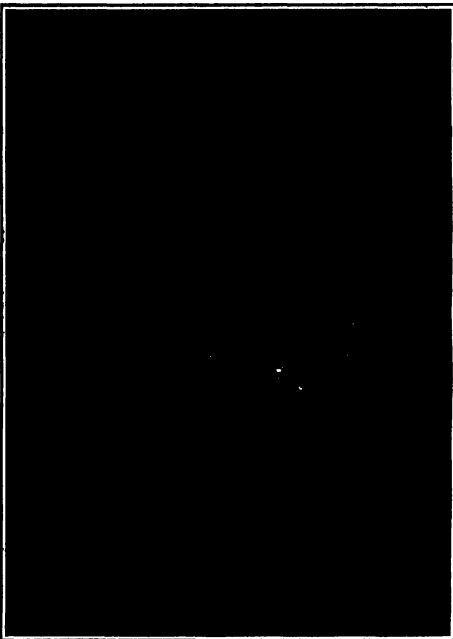
But soon the German government became impatient of Koch's writings. That government required a good work; it avails itself of ability, it engaged Koch in its service.

In 1882 came his truly epochal discovery of the tubercle bacillus, the essential cause of tuberculosis. Here was laid down the sure and scientific basis of the anti-tuberculous propaganda which has since been so successfully waging. Upon this foundation were preventive measures intelligently formulated and with wonderful result up to our day. In Prussia (Koch's own country) the consumption mortality has been reduced forty per cent, in the Black Forest, to forty per cent, in New York, to fifty per cent, in our northern (thirty per cent in the years of 1904). And it is being confidently predicted on the basis of the prophylaxis thus far achieved that our bill drops—yes, even we in this generation—may see this dreadful scourge of the centuries all but eliminated from human existence. Koch's elaborated various tuberculin diagnostic of tuberculosis, their curative properties have unfortunately proved disappointing, yet they were the basis of the wonderfully effective anti-toxins of diphtheria, tetanus (the most agonizing of all diseases of which formerly nearly all the sufferers died) meningitis, pneumonia, and other dreadful infections.

And Koch's achievement in tuberculosis were only a part of his service to mankind. In 1885 he discovered the cholera bacillus which is responsible for that disease. In the investigation of other world scourges—scarlet fever, bubonic plague, septicaemia (blood poisoning), typhus, pneumonia, cattle plague, anthrax, malaria—Koch's part has been most vital, either as discoverer or as originator or developer of prophylaxis and curative methods.

His showed how malaria could be absolutely vanquished by stamping it out of the island of Brion in the Adriatic, under commission of the Austrian government. In Bombay he studied the bubonic plague at first hand. When Louis Pasteur, his father-in-law, was a doublet island in Florida, Nyassa his only white companion being an army surgeon and throughout the whole of eighteen months they together saw but three other whites. A routine of life, however, out of a single log, was their only means of communication with the mainland. There Koch discovered the crocodile's blood to form the chief nourishment of the tsetse fly, the blood-sucking insect that transfers the

(Continued on page 489)



DR. ROBERT KOCH

them to a fact, his industry unrecognized, ridicule and even persecution oftentimes his only compensation, living perhaps in the pitifullest destitution, yet his life and his works have been absolutely essential to the universal scheme. There is the human unit, and there is the welfare and the very existence of the race, which latter was impossible without the self-abnegating labors of the individual.

Not does it in any wise detract from the gratitude due the great man, that he had profited by the labors of others, adding what he can of his own, scrutinizing every detailed datum in the whole fabric permeating and illuminating it with his own mind, and extracting from the mass the mighty deductions of genius. Thus did Jenner's inoculations, upon the principle of fighting fire with fire, make clear the way for Davaine and Laister and Pasteur, upon whose structure Koch built. These latter developed the germ theory of disease, Koch made of this theory the science of bacteriology, which is to-day the most potent factor in civilization. Pasteur declared it to be within human power to banish all parasitic diseases from the face



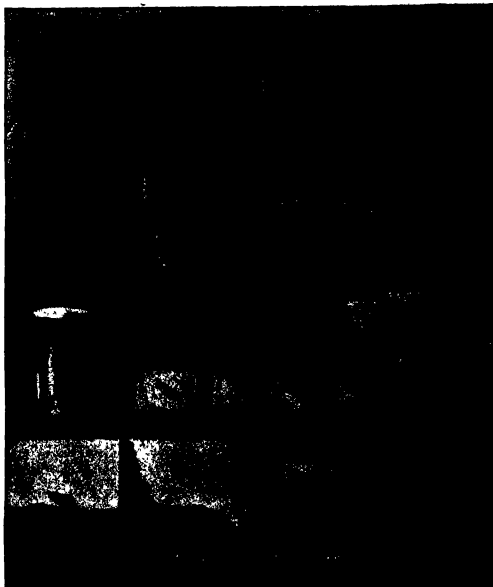
# The Collection and Preservation of Moths and Butterflies

BY FREDERICK M. SCHWED

The most beautiful members of that very large zoological class termed insects are butterflies and moths. Because of their beauty they have always received more or less attention from collectors young and old. Many have started to gather these insects, but because of lack of the knowledge of how to preserve them their so-called collections have spoiled, and the specimens have become broken and moth-eaten. In the following words I shall endeavor to describe, with not the use of scientific terms a method in which to preserve their captures, and which gives such pleasing results that the finished labor will be a source of enjoyment both to the collector and his friends.

The specimens must be caught before being preserved; therefore, it will be most convenient to begin with a description of the primary requisite for this work.

**The Net.**—The frame or rim of the net is easily made from a piece of iron or telegraph wire about forty-two inches long. This wire is bent in the form of a loop, leaving two straight ends, each about four inches long, in the manner shown in the illustration 1. Some sort of rod must then be secured, to serve as a handle. A broom handle answers this purpose very well, but a rod about an inch in diameter and five feet long can be procured at any lumber yard for a few cents. Through this rod about



1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 show the details of net and insect. 7, Chloroforming an insect. 8, Mothballing an insect. 9, Glass for holding dying insect. 10, Preparing for preserving dried insects. 11, Packing pin through a specimen. 12, Beating wings into horizontal position. 13, Pinning insect to a board. 14, Insect between glass plates before mounting. 15, Insect mounted, showing glass shaft.

COLLECTION AND PRESERVATION OF MOTHS AND BUTTERFLIES

half an inch from the top a hole is drilled, as shown in Fig. 1. The straight ends of the wire are pushed through this hole, one from either side. The projecting ends are fastened against the handle with staples or wire wound around. (See Figs. 2, 3, and 4.) Only the making of the bag remains. For this purpose barbed or other fine netting of a brown or green color should be used. Mosquito netting is rather coarse and should not be used, as it scratches the wings of the insects. The bag should be about twenty inches deep and the bottom rounded as in Fig. 5. It may then be attached to the rim by means of tape.

**How to Kill the Insect.**—When the insect is fluttering in the net, the question arises how to kill it painlessly and quickly. This may be accomplished in several ways. Most collectors use a cyanide bottle, which is prepared in the following manner: In a wide-mouthed glass are placed a few lumps of cyanide of potassium. Upon these is poured plaster of Paris to the depth of one inch. When the plaster is dry the bottle is tightly corked, and must not be left uncorked. The body of the insect is gently held between the thumb and index finger (7) and a drop of chloroform is dropped upon its head from a vial carried in the pocket. The insect immediately stops its fluttering and may then be taken from the net and pinned. (Continued on page 485.)

## BERTILLON AND THE BURGLAR'S "JIMMY"

BY JACQUES BOYER

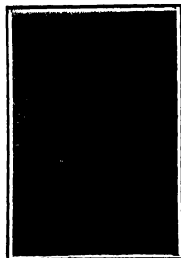
The police officer or magistrate engaged in the elucidation of a crime, endeavors to collect as many exact facts as possible and the more methodically he seeks evidence and gives a logical grouping to his evidence, the greater is his chance of discovering the true cause and the perpetrator of the crime.

M. Bertillon, the celebrated chief of the anthropo-

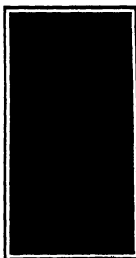
metric service of the French police, has recently invented a dynamometer of special character, which will facilitate judicial investigations by furnishing exact measurements of the muscular efforts which are manifested in the violent entry into a house, room, or desk, and by making it possible to reproduce the traces of his work which the burglar has left on doors

and articles of furniture. The apparatus consists of a steel frame, which is attached by screws to a wooden table. It contains a lower plate which can move forward and back, two lateral uprights stiffened by curved braces, and a cross piece of steel attached by strong bolts to the tops of these posts. This frame carries

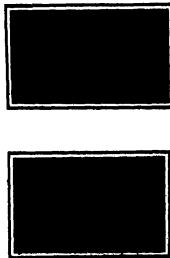
(Continued on page 491.)



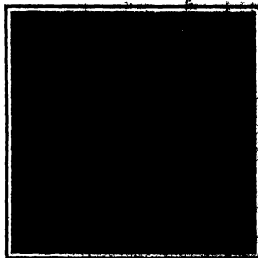
The Bertillon dynamometer—a mechanical detective.



Impressions of the three fundamental types, showing the force in kilograms required to produce each.



A KIDNAPING BURGLAR DETECTOR.



The Bertillon dynamometer—a mechanical detective.

# Handy Man's Workshop

## 400 WATER HEATER FOR KITCHEN BOILERS.

BY JAMES A. HENNINGSEN.

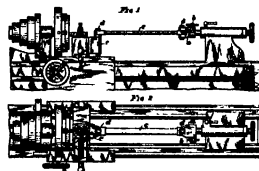
One of the chief drawbacks of the gas kitchen range as the problem of maintaining a suitable hot water supply. A small heater attached to the kitchen boiler will overcome this trouble. The accompanying illustrations show how such a heater can easily be made and connected at a very small expense. It will only take a few minutes to heat enough water for a bath or for washing dishes or clothes. As the hot water rises and stays at the top of the boiler until drawn off at the faucet it is not necessary to heat all the water in the boiler, as is the case when it is connected with the kitchen range in the usual way, but only such amount as may be required for the time being. The heater as illustrated in the vertical section, Fig. 1, and cross section, Fig. 2, consists of a copper coil, enclosed in a casing, with a gas burner in the center of the coil, and it is connected to the kitchen boiler at the top and bottom. The gas burner can be made with or without a primer or lighter. It can also be connected with a self-lighter to be operated with a push button in the usual way.

Take an ordinary thin-walled copper tube about one inch in diameter, and fill it with fine sand, closing the ends with stoppers. With a wooden mallet begin about 3 inches from each end to flatten the pipe, until it is  $\frac{1}{4}$  inch in thickness. After this, make a wooden center, say 6 inches in diameter, with one end tapering or rather rounded off. One end of the tube is now fastened to this wooden center and the flat pipe is wound around the same, forming a close helix. The other end is then formed over the ending end of the wooden center by hammering it into place with the mallet, until the coils begin to close up, leaving enough space for the spent gases to pass out. The end must of course be made straight and in the center so that it will enter the central hole in the casing or cover which is to be connected to the boiler.

After the coil is made into the required shape, the stoppers in the ends are removed, and the ends are run out by turning the coil around and tapping it lightly with the mallet. It may then be connected to a faucet and washed out with water. The lower end of the coil may be bent at any angle to suit local conditions.

The externally threaded end of an ordinary  $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch union is now slipped over the end of the coil which is panned over, say about  $\frac{1}{16}$  inch, forming a flange which serves to connect the copper tube and iron pipe with the ordinary union. (See Fig. 4.) This

The burner is made out of an ordinary nipple, with caps on each end. In the nipple are drilled a number of small holes. Inside the nipple is a small iron cylinder with conical bottom, and provided with a small flange at its upper end, where it is fastened between the end of the nipple and the cap. The object of this cylinder is to partly fill up the inside of the nipple, leaving a small annular space for the gas and air to pass up and out through the small holes in the nipple. To the lower head of the casing is fastened an ordinary air regulator, into which the gas pipe is secured, forming an ordinary Bunsen burner.



SIDE AND PLAN VIEWS OF GAS FOR CUTTING A CONCAVE SURFACE.

The main feature of this heater is to introduce the water in a very thin, circular sheet surrounding the central heater. It will now be seen that when the gas is lighted the water in the flat coil becomes hot and starts to circulate around the fire up the spiral course to the top of the boiler. The temperature of the water may be regulated by inserting a valve below the coil, but for ordinary use this is not necessary.

Fig. 1 shows the complete heater connected up to a kitchen boiler with a vent pipe for the spent gases connected to the chimney.

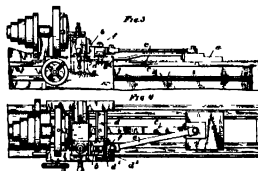
Fig. 3 shows how the heater may be fitted up with a primer, or starter for the gas, which is merely a small independent Bunsen burner, connected below the regular mixing tube. This burner is first lighted, the flame will shoot up into the heater, the ordinary gas-cock is then turned on and the gas ignited, when the primer may be turned off. This is only a matter of convenience in starting the big burner, as a match or taper will do the same thing.

Fig. 4 shows a system in which the heater proper is located in the basement and the supply pipe, instead of being connected to the boiler or storage tank, is controlled independently from each floor. The heater is equipped with an electric self-lighting apparatus, such as may be purchased in the market. An ordinary "off and on" push button is placed on each floor, near, or it may be connected to the water faucet. The apparatus is quite simple, it is only necessary to push a button, which will ignite the fire in the heater, and then open the faucet. The cold water in the pipe will run out, of course, before the hot water

## TURNING CONCAVE AND CONVEX SURFACES.

BY H. A. URBANSTADT.

Some time ago the writer had occasion to make a pair of jaws for grinding telescope lenses, and as this calls for very accurate work in order to get the true curve, it became necessary to make the attachments which are here described. In this class of work it is imperative that the utmost care be given the construction of the several parts, as upon the accuracy of the measurements and slowness of fit depend the quality of the finished product. There must be no lost motion anywhere, as this would mean chatter marks on the



LAYER RIGGED TO TURN A CONVEX SURFACE.

surface of the work. For this reason it is better to use taper pins or bolts, which will insure a close fitting joint, and the extra trouble will be more than repaid. The rigidity of the radius bar is of vital importance, it is far better to have it too heavy than too light. Nothing is better than a good cast iron bar, for it is less apt to spring than steel. For radii of 10 to 24 inches, a bar  $\frac{1}{2}$  by  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inch cross-section is none too heavy, while for radii of 24 to 36 inches  $\frac{3}{4}$  by 2 inches is about the proper proportion.

Figs. 3 and 4 show front and plan views respectively of the concave attachment. The radius block *b* is bored to make a close fit on the nose of the tailstock spindle, and is provided with a tightening screw *e* for holding the block securely in place. It will be observed that the block is split where the tightening screws work. The lugs or ears which receive the radius bar *a* are now finished on the inside, and the holes for the pins or bolts *d* are drilled. Care should be used to get these holes directly in line with the dead center, it may appear that a slight variation one way or the other may be of no account, but it is a good mechanical always adhere to the rule "Anything wrong, doing at all is worth doing well." The block *a* is secured in any suitable manner to the tool post slide. As this part of various makes of lathes differs it is impossible to give a form of this block that will fit all, but any good mechanic can devise means for securing one to his lathe. Regarding the radius bar *a* little can be said except the spacing of the holes. On the accuracy of this depends wholly the accuracy of the curve of the part machined. Fig. 2 shows the tool on a line with the center, in which position it is set before starting to cut. The tail stock is now clamped in position, while the lathe carriage should be free to move back and forth on the ways. As the tool post slide is drawn toward the operator the carriage will be drawn back, causing the cutting tool to describe an arc the radius of which is equal to the distance between the centers of the holes in the radius bar. The tool is set to the work by turning the hand wheel of the tail stock screw while the cross feed is accomplished in the usual manner.

Figs. 3 and 4 represent the device for turning convex surfaces, which is somewhat more complicated than the mechanism described above. The radius bar used for concave work can be used here but all of the other parts must be made especially for the purpose. The block *a* must be planned and fitted to the latter ways of the lathe and mounted in such a manner that it can move freely backward and forward. The slide *d* which carries the cross-slide block *k* is securely bolted to the lathe bed. Bolted to the sliding block *d* is the bearing *e* to which is secured the forward end of radius bar *c*. On the upper side of block *d* is a roller which runs in the slot in block *e* the latter being secured to the tool carriage. The lathe carriage and block *a* are rigidly connected by means of the bar *c*, the front end of which may be bolted to the bridge web as shown by the dotted lines. The operation is as follows, bearing in mind that the tool is at right angles to the bed. As the tool post slide or cross slide is fed forward, the sliding block *d* is carried with it by means of the slotted block *d* and roller *f*. As sliding block *d* advances the radius bar *c* is carried with it and radius bar *c* it becomes apparent that block *a* must move backward, and as this block and lathe carriage are rigidly connected by bar *c* the lathe carriage will be carried with it, the result being that the tool is caused to move in a reversed arc. It might be well

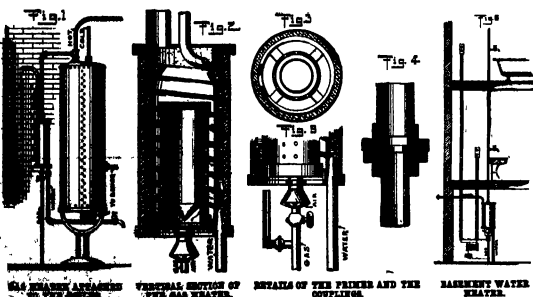


Fig. 1. Fig. 2. Fig. 3. Fig. 4. Fig. 5.

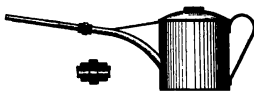
should be done at each end of the coil. Of course the heat of the water should be put in before the valves are fastened to the coil. The coil is now fastened to the boiler, consisting of a piece of flat iron plate with a hole in suitable position with the coil end, and the boiler is connected to the chimney. The water in the boiler is now heated, and the water is drawn off at the faucet. The water is now drawn off at the faucet. The water is now drawn off at the faucet.

make its appearance. The temperature of the water can be regulated by the faucet. That is to say, the greater the heat desired, the smaller should be the quantity allowed to run through the faucet, and vice versa. When no more hot water is wanted the other bottom is pushed, which cuts off the gas and puts out the fire in the heater, and the faucet is closed. This operation may be repeated any time hot water is wanted. If cold water is wanted, it is only necessary to turn on the faucet, without starting the fire. Thus hot or cold water may be drawn from the same faucet at will.

to state that in order to avoid reasting, it is a good plan to have the blank which is to be machined cast with a convex face of about the same curve as it should be when finished. If this is not done or we wish to use flat disks of cold-rolled steel or other metal, it will be necessary to move the cutting tool forward after each cut.

#### A SAFETY OIL GAN

When oiling electrical machinery, it is always advisable to safeguard yourself against accidental shock, especially when currents of high tension are being



OIL GAN WITH INSULATED TIP

generated. It frequently happens when an ordinary long-spout can is employed for oiling dynamos that a severe shock is received by the oiler, resulting sometimes in death. A few years ago the writer invented an oil can that was perfectly safe under all ordinary conditions of use. Owing to the extreme simplicity of the design any one possessing ordinary mechanical ability can convert an ordinary oiler either of the vertical or horizontal kind, into a safety oiler. Cut the spout in the middle and solder upon each end a piece of brass tubing having either an external or internal thread cut. Fit through a coupling sleeve made of insulating material as shown in the sectional view. The insulator can be made out of either hard rubber or vulcanized fiber turned in the lathe, with a milled center to admit of a firm grip when screwing or unscrewing the parts. Since oil is an insulator, no current can get past the coupling sleeve to the oiler's hand.

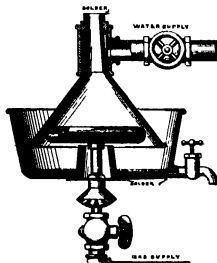
#### INSTANTANEOUS WATER HEATER.

BY GEORGE W. PAGE.

The old proverb, "A watched kettle never boils," does not apply to the water heater shown in the accompanying illustration because hot or even boiling water can be drawn from it the instant it is put into operation. It is made from an ordinary copper funnel and a cake tin.

The copper funnel should preferably be fitted on the outside. To the water supply pipe is attached a valve for the regulation of the flow of water. This valve is fitted in a short nipple and an ordinary tee fitting. One end of the arm of the tee is fitted with an ordinary plug which is bored and reamed out to fit the small end of the funnel and the end of same is turned over with a small hammer and soldered to the plug. The other end of the tee is fitted to fit very closely to the outside of the funnel, leaving, however, a slight annular opening which may be regulated by riving the plug in or out, so that when the water is turned on it will flow in an even thin sheet over the funnel.

Inside the funnel is an ordinary gas burner, such



HOM-MADE INSTANTANEOUS WATER HEATER.

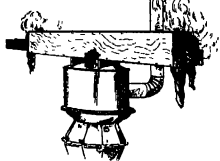
as may be purchased for ten cents. This burner is connected to the gas supply in the usual manner. It will be noticed by referring to the illustration that the funnel is in an inverted position. The lower part of the funnel is surrounded by an ordinary cake mold, with the inside cone partly cut off. This tin forms a basin for the hot water which may be drawn off with an ordinary faucet soldered to the cake tin, or it may be run off as the water boils. It will now be seen

that when the gas is lighted the funnel becomes hot at once, and when the water is turned on it is forced through the narrow opening between the tee and the funnel in a uniform thin sheet which spreads over the funnel and becomes hot as it flows down. Almost any degree of heat may be obtained by regulating the flow of water with the valve. The spent gases from the gas burner pass up through the funnel and out to the atmosphere. Some arrangement may be made to connect the water and gas valves so that they will be turned on simultaneously, thus obviating the danger of overheating the funnel.

#### STEAM BOXES FOR BOAT BUILDING.

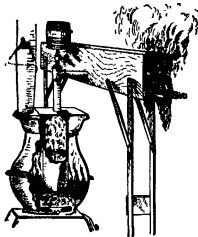
BY A. P. KENNEDY.

A simple method of fitting a steam box for boat work is as follows: Take a common wash boiler, put a 1½ inch hole in the cover to receive a short piece of tubing 2 or 3 inches long, which should be soldered. The steam box is made of wood, of any length desired, and about 10 inches high by 8 inches wide inside. Make a couple of cheeks hollowed out to fit the top of boiler cover, and nail them to the box. Cut a round



STEAM BOX CONNECTED TO A WASH BOILER.

hole in the bottom of the box to receive the tubing that has been placed in the cover of the boiler. Be careful not to allow the tubing to project inside the box. The ends of the box are generally stopped up with old rags. In operation put about a pintful of water in the boiler. Fit the cover on, and then lift the



STEAM BOX CONNECTED TO A CAST-IRON MUFFLER.

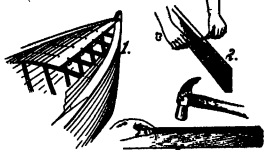
steam box and place it on top of the cover, allowing

the tubing to enter the bottom of the box. Another method of constructing a steam box has been devised by William Ellis, a boat builder. It is made by taking a cast iron muffler, plugging the lower end, and connecting a short length of 1½ inch pipe to the opposite end. A tee is put on the end of the pipe with a short piece of 1½ inch pipe screwed into the tee at right angles to the muffler piece. The upper end of the tee is plugged up with a wooden plug. If there is no reducer handy

Bore a hole in the wooden plug, and screw into it a short piece of ¼ inch pipe, fitted with a stop cock of some sort. Above the stop cock place a can or wooden paint pail, which is quite easily attached by simply boring a hole in the bottom and screwing to the short nipple above the stop cock. In operation, the boiler is placed in the stove with a coal or wood fire. A piece of sheet iron with a hole through which the pipe projects, serves as a cover for the stove. Water is poured into the paint pail and allowed to run down into the muffler as desired. A wooden steam box mounted on legs is connected to the muffler by the 1½ inch pipe. This style of boiler is not injured if it boils dry, and is frequently red hot when the water is put in. This, of course, makes it "fussy," but otherwise no harm is done, as the pipe is of sufficient size to handle all the steam that is generated.

#### MAKING TIGHT JOINTS IN BOAT SHEETS.

A bond sheet is never covered so many joints as the sheenlighter than any other part of the boat. The job sometimes may be doing it up half the time, while during the other half, it may be covered with rain, dew, or salt water. And on this account the safety of boat builders calls the seams, which does not make



MAKING TIGHT JOINTS IN BOAT SHEETS.

as pretty a deck as a tight seam, made in the following manner.

Have the wood thoroughly seasoned and make a new fitting joint for the deck plank that you are laying next to the plank already in place. When this is done, take the piece out and with a smooth steel rod or burnisher of some kind, burnish down, with quite a pressure, the corner of the joined edge, as in Fig. 2 of the accompanying drawing. This of course compresses the wood. Now plane the wood down on the joined edge, making a true corner again. This is now ready to fasten on the deck carlins. Proceed in like manner with the rest of the deck planks. The joints on a wooden tank or vat can be made tight by the same principle. Instead of burnishing the corner a round rod is laid in the center of the jointed piece and with a hammer is forced nearly half its diameter in the wood (see Fig. 3). This is placed down until there is no groove left, each joint is treated in the same way. When the wood is moistened, the part that has been compressed by the round rod will expand. This produces a very tight joint.

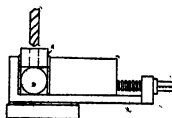
#### TO PREVENT OBSTRUCTION OF THE FEED PIPE IN AUTOMOBILES.

Among the worst and most costly troubles of the amateur motorist are those connected with the piston, and if he is unable to discover the cause of the disorder he may have to pay heavily for curing that which could be avoided by observing the following simple precaution.

Recently when my engine failed to work properly I determined to look into the matter myself, and started by removing the cylinder heads. I discovered small particles of metal around the edge of the cylinders and the cylinders themselves were scratched up. Tracing this to its cause I discovered that the feed pipe was almost clogged up with small particles of corroded copper. Going further, my gasoline tank showed signs of corrosion which I attribute to poor gasoline, containing considerable moisture, thereby causing corrosion of the copper tank. After giving my tank a thorough washing and scraping I had it electroplated inside with a coating of tin. All particles of metal were removed from the cylinders, the feed pipe was cleaned out, and the parts were connected up. I have been running my motor for the past eight months without the trouble recurring, and have saved myself the cost of a new tank.

#### HOW TO DRILL A HOLE CENTRAL IN A BAR.

It is a rather difficult matter to drill a hole in a bar and keep the hole central. The accompanying drawing shows a practical trick. A piece of tool steel



METHOD OF DRILLING A HOLE CENTRAL IN A BAR.

A is caught in the lathe chuck, and is turned and bored so the hole will run true with the outside diameter. The outer end of the bar is then turned the exact size of the bar, which is to be drilled. The bar is placed in a vise as shown, the drill jig A is placed on top of the job, and the vise is then tightened up. As the jig and the bar are of the same diameter, the vise will hold them both very rigidly while the bar is being bored.













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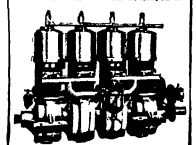
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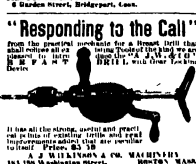


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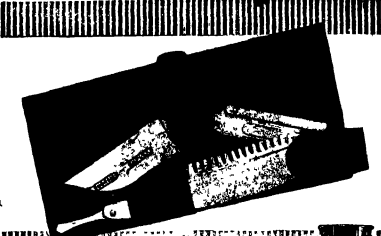


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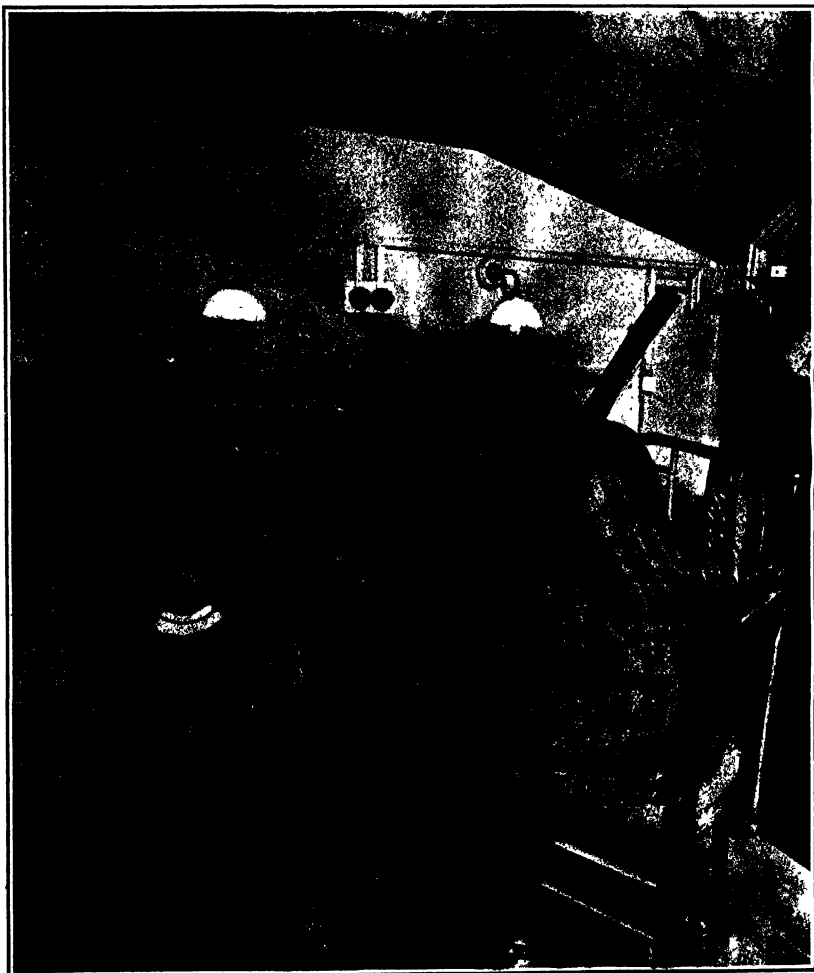
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MEASURING THE TEMPERATURE OF A STAR.—[See page 501.]





## A TELEPHONIC STETHOSCOPE

BY THE ENGLISH CORRESPONDENT OF THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN



Telephone relay with wiring removed

Great interest has been centered among British telephonic and medical circles in the interesting device invented by Mr. B. O. Brown which was recently described by the Institution of Electrical Engineers. The vital feature of this invention is the successful perfection of a telephone relay. For many years inventors have been trying to develop such a relay but have been baffled by difficulties which many engineers have declared to be unmountable. As the outcome of six years patient study and experiment however Mr. Brown has achieved success as tests over the trunk telephone lines of Great Britain have strikingly demonstrated.

This relay which is shown in the accompanying illustration and the design of which may be gathered from a reference to the explanatory diagram

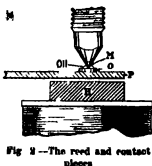


Fig. 2.—The reed and contact pieces

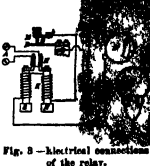


Fig. 3.—Electrical connections of the relay.

described upon entirely new lines and is based upon the researches of Prof. J. J. Thomson, Barharth, Kinley and others concerning the flow of electrons across a microscopic air gap between two metal surfaces at different potentials. Barharth found that when the metallic circuit is broken by a minute opening of the order of 0.000005 centimeter and the metal at the point of interruption is platinum the current will flow round the circuit and across the opening and when this interrupting space which Mr. Brown terms the conduction space is slightly altered in length the resistance is varied and the value of the current flowing round the circuit is greatly affected. This constitutes the fundamental basis of Mr. Brown's invention for he points out that this conduction space is just what is wanted for the current carrying device of a telephone relay where microscopic mechanical movements have to be converted into large current changes. But the dimensions of this conduction space are so minute that it is a difficult matter to insure and maintain it by mechanical means. Therefore he devised a method whereby the current flowing across the conduction space effects its own adjustment in very much the same manner as the current that passes through an electric arc lamp strikes and maintains the length of the arc.

In the diagram Fig. 1 there is a permanent magnet *N* which is continued by soft iron pole right up to, but not touching the lower steel reed *P*. Two sets of coil windings *H* and *K* are wound round these soft iron pole extensions and the telephone currents to be magnified electrically round the winding *H* and conversely by the magnifying effect of the reed *P* in vibration. There are top and bottom metal contact pieces *M* and *O* which are opened to an in-

termediate degree by the fine adjusting screw *W*, and by the action of the local current passing through the contact and around the winding *K*. It is the action of the local current operating through this winding which forces and subsequently maintains the conduction space.

This automatic adjustment is so absolutely perfect that the instrument may be turned upside down and yet produce scarcely any appreciable alteration in the value of the local current and certainly without exerting the slightest effect upon the action of the relay. The regulating winding *K* however must not act when traversed by the rapidly varying telephonic currents and this end is assured by surrounding the iron under the coil by a closed circuit of copper sheathing. Eddy currents set up in this sheathing by mutual induction destroy the self induction of the coil. In the instrument illustrated herewith the contact between the reed *P* and the contact pieces *M* and *O* is effected with metal pieces of heart osmium iridium alloy the top contact being pointed like a pencil (Fig. 3) with the lower one flat and affixed to the reed. Both are polished and work under a small drop of oil.

The connections of the relay are shown in Fig. 3. The telephone currents to be intensified enter by the terminals *A* and circulate through the winding *H*. At *C* is a dry coil of normal voltage. At *K* the low resistance regulating winding, at *F* the telephone receiver of approximately 40 ohms resistance and at *D* an ampere meter or current indicator. The relay usually acts at its best adjustment when the microphone contact is opened so as to reduce the local current to half its maximum value.

The extent to which it magnifies speech on ordinary lines is striking as trials have demonstrated and the great value of the invention is that the intensity of sound is secured without any perceptible loss in pitch or timbre.

The instrument is so constructed that it can work with large resistance in its receiver in its most comfortable and reliable speaking on this relay is due to any length now possible to be so supposing direct speaking the relay to be increased by being placed nearer at the end as a receiver at the telephone end.

The telephone current is increased to 100 times. Should still be desired then it is only necessary to place two relays in tandem by which means magnification is increased to 100 times.

It is only necessary to place two relays in tandem by which means magnification is increased to 100 times. Moreover if a piece of soft rubber be made to touch the reed to assist the natural electrical damping of the reed the voice can be transmitted more distinctly and clearly than if the connection were taking place in a room owing probably to the complete absence of echoes.

The introduction of the local regulating winding *K* converts the metal contacts *M* and *O* into microphones of extreme delicacy securing a far finer degree of an stillness than could be obtained by light pressure between carbons. In view of this fact Mr. Brown continued his investigations and succeeded in evolving an electrical stethoscope whereby the sound of heart

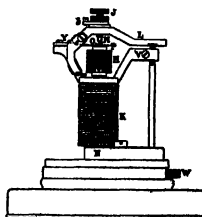


Fig. 4.—Diagrammatic view of the stethoscope.

A TELEPHONIC STETHOSCOPE.



Combined stethoscope and telephone relay.



Electric stethoscope with transmitter removed.

beats and other internal organs is very greatly magnified.

This stethoscope is highly ingenious and its design is shown diagrammatically in Fig. 4 while the photographic illustration conveys an idea of its general appearance. The transmitter if such it may be termed represented by *A* comprises a shallow brass coil faced with a thin diaphragm of osmium. This is placed upon the body in the region of the heart or other organ to be examined as with the ordinary instrument, and the sound of the beat or movement is conveyed to the osmium diaphragm then to the air within the tube *P* to which the transmitter is connected acting the metal diaphragm *D* in vibration. The contact pieces *M* and *O* are fashioned of osmium iridium *M* being mounted on the diaphragm *D* and *O* on the steel reed

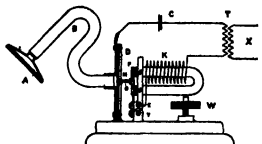


Fig. 5.—Diagrammatic view of the stethoscope.

*P* The reed, together with the magnet *N* is supported on a brass frame *B* pivoted or hinged at its lower support *V*. The conduction space is produced between the contacts *M* and *O* by the fine adjusting screw *W*, and by the automatic action of the local current flowing from the coil *O* through the winding *K* and round the magnet *A*. A special telephone transformer of equal windings of about 30 ohms resistance is represented by *F* in the primary and in the secondary.

With such an instrument as this the sound of the heart beat is intensified about three times. But as such magnification is insufficient for practical purposes Mr. Brown connects his telephone relay, as shown described to the transformer wires *X* and the two feature stents being about a sound magnification of about 30 times or more.

The instrument has been tested at the Laidlaw Hospital where it was subjected to a number of pathological heart cases. The physicians expressed their interest and were able to detect many cases that they had previously had. When it was applied directly to the heart the sound in the telephone receiver was heard with unobscured distinctness, and was even capable of the reverse transmission as well as those standing around. It is to be used medical work only, as in the human body such as breathing which is not suitable for such purposes with the heart and the lungs. The instrument is so constructed that it can be used in many ways and is not subject to the same limitations as other instruments. It is to be used in many ways and is not subject to the same limitations as other instruments. It is to be used in many ways and is not subject to the same limitations as other instruments.

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The new system we are about to describe has this particular feature, that duplicate color pictures can be obtained at pleasure from the first negative taken in the camera. It has been perfected and simplified by Mr. Frederick H. Ives of this city and is quite unique in the way certain apparent difficulties are overcome.

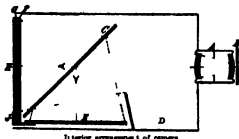
The process is based on the merging of the three primary colors, red, blue, and green. It is not quite as simple in operation as the autochrome process but possesses the following details advantages over that. The sensitive plates used keep better developing successfully when several months old and cost but half as much as the autochrome plates. The positive transparencies are made by a separate process from the finished negatives, thus permitting the making of any number of duplicates. The transparencies transmit many times as much light as autochromes and are quite free from granularity so that they are perfectly adapted for use along with ordinary lantern slides in the lantern also for use in the stereoscope. The process also permits of local treatment to modify the colors when and where desired with extraordinary facility a feature which will be greatly appreciated by the artistic amateur.

A special camera is required to make the triple negative but it is very simple and can be used without change for all ordinary kinds of photography with plates or films.

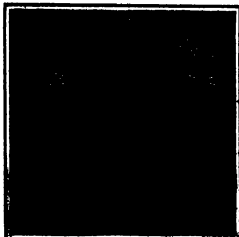
When it is desired to make a set of triple negatives for color photography a trichromatic plate pack consisting of three sensitized plates held together as one is used in the special plate holder instead of a single plate and is so disposed in the camera after the plate holder has been inserted as to produce by one exposure three negatives representing the three primary colors. The plate pack consists of a red sensitive and a green sensitive plate with the sensitive or film surface in contact held between a backing card and a blue-sensitive plate which is hinged together by a strip of gummed paper. When the pack is inserted in the plate holder the red and green-sensitive plates are retained by ledges and are pressed in close contact film against film by a spring on the lid but the blue-sensitive plate is made slightly shorter so that it falls or passes outward between the ledges. When the opaque side of the plate holder is withdrawn in preparing for an exposure this plate falls outward into the camera resting on the bottom of the latter in a horizontal position at right angles to the other plates. After this a yellow screen plate is dropped down from the camera roof by means of a lever on the exterior as shown in the diagram and the usual composing screen is placed over the lens tube. Then the exposure is made by means of the lens shutter which is

aid to be about as long as that required for an autochrome plate.

Referring to the diagram, A is the lens having a compensating green *P* attached to it which equalizes the exposure for the three images and perfects the color selection. *C* is a hinged transparent



The interior arrangement of the camera.



The camera, plate holder, and carrying case.

yellow glass plate pack consisting of three sensitized plates held together as one is used in the special plate holder instead of a single plate and is so disposed in the camera after the plate holder has been inserted as to produce by one exposure three negatives representing the three primary colors. The plate pack consists of a red sensitive and a green sensitive plate with the sensitive or film surface in contact held between a backing card and a blue-sensitive plate which is hinged together by a strip of gummed paper. When the pack is inserted in the plate holder the red and green-sensitive plates are retained by ledges and are pressed in close contact film against film by a spring on the lid but the blue-sensitive plate is made slightly shorter so that it falls or passes outward between the ledges. When the opaque side of the plate holder is withdrawn in preparing for an exposure this plate falls outward into the camera resting on the bottom of the latter in a horizontal position at right angles to the other plates. After this a yellow screen plate is dropped down from the camera roof by means of a lever on the exterior as shown in the diagram and the usual composing screen is placed over the lens tube. Then the exposure is made by means of the lens shutter which is

The plate holder is inserted at the back of the camera under a ground glass frame held by springs in the usual way. Focusing is done by moving the lens inward or outward through a tube on the front.

It is evident from this arrangement that the images on each plate must be exactly the same but that two of them will be reversed one by reflection and the other because made through the glass side of the plate.

In making positive duplicates on the film it is only necessary to reverse the position of the print from the positive-positioned negative to make all three positive prints coincide when bound together between two glass plates to form one harmonious transparent colored picture. The collodion positive film is so thin that accurate registration of the three films is not affected.

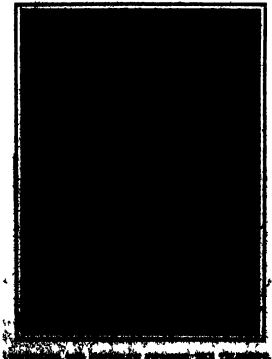
The exposed plates are developed by time development as a unit held in a special rack they being separated open like the leaves of a book in a tank filled with an amido developer. The resulting negatives show no color but contain the color record in black and white and when finished are available at any time for making natural color transparencies.

To make the transparent color prints the three negatives are placed side by side in a printing frame. A sheet of collodion bearing a coating of bleached fish glue is laid collodion side down on the negatives the back of the printing frame put in and then exposures made to light through the negatives—about one minute in clearest sunlight. The exposed sheet is then removed from the frame clamped coated side up on a glass and developed by washing with water under a tap for a few seconds. This gives three graduated low relief prints which are perfectly transparent but they are then cut apart and immersed in separate red, blue and green dye baths for a few minutes (the dye is furnished in their proper colors) then rinsed off dried and superposed in register to make the complete natural color transparency. The same negatives are available for color prints on paper but the process for making color prints on paper are not yet ready so simple and satisfactory as the transparency process.

The appearance of the camera and its holder and the plan for carrying the apparatus is shown in the accompanying illustration. It is quite compact and simple. For the purpose of this picture both in the form of lantern slides and stereoscopic transparencies have been shown and their power a most pleasing brilliancy and transparency in coloring just as one would like to see. It should be mentioned that Mr. Ives is the inventor of the system succeeded in developing and printing half tone and half tone three-color processes several years ago and may be regarded as one of the pioneers in color photography. For some of these discoveries he was awarded the Progress medal of the Royal Photographic Society of Great Britain the Elliott (see the Journal of the Franklin Institute and a special award from the International Society of Pictorialists). We are informed that a company in this city under the style of Ives Inventions is soon to introduce this latest system which seems to be of a very practical character.

## WIRELESS TIME SIGNALING TO SEA FROM THE EIFFEL TOWER

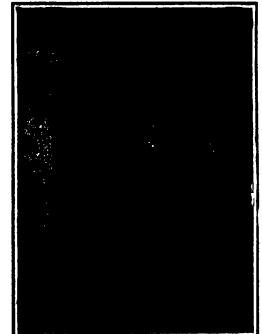
BY F. HONORE



The wireless telegraphic station of the Eiffel Tower is now signaling Paris to ocean time to all vessels within a radius of 1800 miles. The present station is using 15 to 16 horse-power. When the new installation whose completion was delayed by the recent floods is finished 100 horse-power will be at the disposal of the engineers and the range will be doubled.

A master clock which has long been used for the correction of marine chronometers is set up in a room of the observatory side by side with blocks that telegraph mean time to various centers in Paris and sidereal clocks which serve to regulate the mean time. The master clock in question itself indicates mean time with reference to the meridian of Paris. Enclosed in a glass case and suspended from a wall so thick that vibrations in masonry and variations in temperature cannot affect the mechanism it is corrected each day if necessary by means of a magnetic regulator. The rod of the pendulum carries a magnet the lower end of which is spaced a few millimeters from a solenoid. Depending upon the direction of the current which is sent through the solenoid, the magnet is attracted or repelled thus retarding or accelerating the beat of the pendulum. In this manner a lost second is regained in thirty-six minutes.

The clock is connected by wire with the key of the wireless station of the Eiffel Tower. At midnight at 12:00 and at 12:34, the clockwork automatically



CLOCK WHICH AUTOMATICALLY TELEGRAPHS TIME.



## DISTILLING KNOWLEDGE

U U PENDING

## RAINING THE WATER

1992-1993

HOW LARGE DOES THE SUN APPEAR TO YOU?

This being the case when the sun is in mid heaven how can its size be reduced to some uniform standard?

The most logical answer is found by representing it as a circle located at a fixed distance from the eye. The average reader holds the printed page about one foot from his eyes when reading. At this distance he can estimate fairly closely the size of the type on the line. In fact, it doesn't need good judges of distance to tell the size of an illustration, that doesn't exceed a few inches, with a great fraction of

**Detroit Mob**

### DECLARATION

**the Current Supplement**

The removal of ashes by unloading them to a waste tank hydraulically is done in connection with the removal of the ash from the furnace. The construction of the Hawthorn Pails hydroelectric development at the Great Falls Water Power and Towns Company on the Mingo River near Great Falls, Va., has been completed. The waste tank is located directly above the edge of the river bank. The bituminous coal used is dumped by gravity from cars on a trestle at the head of the furnace. The air flowing from the furnace room runs through the furnace. As the ashes fall through the grates they are drawn out into a transverse concrete-lined trench in the first floor. This trench is sloped to one side of the building where the water enters with a stream extending on a grade of five per cent to the edge of the river bank. When the grates are cleaned the ashes are piled into the trench and a hose stream turned into the latter to wash the residue from the grates. The water is then carried out to the river through the flume. Only a small amount of water being required. No difficulty is experienced from clogging in the trench or flume and the water in the river prevents an accumulation of the ashes of the river.

Secretary against the United States have been largely confined to the question of the right of the Government to sue for patent infringement. The right of the Government to sue for patent infringement is a question which has been the subject of much litigation in the United States. The right of the Government to sue for patent infringement is a question which has been the subject of much litigation in the United States. The right of the Government to sue for patent infringement is a question which has been the subject of much litigation in the United States.

### New Trade Mark Mills

[illegible]



## A GARDEN OF FUNGI.

BY JACQUES BOYER.

The Mycethèque annexed to the laboratory of cryptogamy of the Paris school of pharmacy is unquestionably the most original garden in the world. It contains living specimens of 107 species of molds and allied fungi which M. Baisnier has patiently collected, separated and cultivated on an appropriate medium.

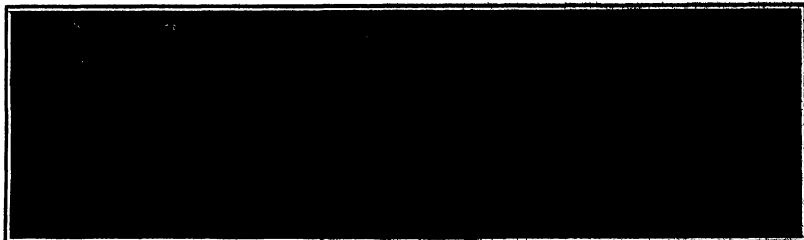
The fungi are sown or planted on pieces of licorice root in bottles of Bohemian glass about 3 inches in diameter and 8 inches high. The mouth of the bottle is closed with a plug of cotton wool. A glass rod the top of which is enlarged to form a cup in which the pieces of licorice root are placed passes through an India rubber stopper which is fitted to a hole in the bottom of the bottle. The miniature greenhouse rests on a base of wood or porcelain.

Stamens of *Penicillium* at first simple and later branched and resembling a brush bear chains of green, gray, yellow or rose-colored spores. Minute drops of water often condense on the brush of *Penicillium cleoformis* producing a very beautiful effect.

In order to obtain a pure and isolated species in each bottle interlopers of other species are carefully removed and the bottle if necessary is replanted two or three times. The principal function of the collection is to supply the laboratory with living specimens of assured purity of type for use in research and in the illustration of lectures.

The position of the curator is no sinecure. When the nutrient material has been exhausted the fungus will perish unless special methods of preserving its life are adopted. M. Baisnier having learned by experience

number of European species, which Baisnier passed the two-fold power of transforming starch into glucose and of converting glucose into alcohol and carbon dioxide. Among these species is *Aspergillus niger*, which is frequently seen growing on decaying vegetable matter. *Phanerochaete splendens* exhibits delicate filaments terminating in little balls. An allied species, *P. stroma*, is employed to heighten the brilliancy of carmine by consuming the fatty ingredients of cochineal. The single genus *Penicillium* is represented by 17 species. *P. glaucum* is the common green mold which attacks bread, fruit and other articles of food. Various sorts of cheese owe their characteristic flavors to species of *Penicillium*. *Trichia* and *Geopelia* to *P. candidum* and *P. alium*, and *Roquefort* to *P. roqueforti* which develops inside the cheese and pro-



Penicillium cleoformis

Trichia splendens

Phanerochaete splendens

Aspergillus niger

Aspergillus stroma

Penicillium glaucum

The licorice roots are deprived of their cork-like bark in order to lay bare the yellow albumen or sap-wood which is filled with glycyrrhizin, a saccharine substance which is very favorable to the development of mold fungi.

Before the mold spores are sown the bottles containing the pieces of licorice root are sterilized by heating them to 248 deg. F. for one hour in an autoclave.

One of the accompanying photographs shows M. Baisnier sowing the spores by removing the cotton plug and depositing a few spores on the licorice root by means of a platinum wire sheathed in a glass tube. The platinum wire is sterilized by passing it through the flame of a Bunsen burner before it is dipped into the mold culture and the cotton plug is instantly replaced after the sowing. The bottle is then placed in one of the cases in the Mycethèque where the mycelium of the fungus rapidly permeates the licorice root which becomes covered with a growth which varies greatly in appearance according to the species. *Hyphopodium* develops a dense mass of long grayish hairs. *Trichia felina* resembles a shrub with many branches and *Arctostaphylos rosea* presents the appearance of a white felt hat. The reproductive

## TABLE.

spores of each species, arranged in a row, are weak one or two, while others are more numerous.

There has led to the fact that the separated from the organs of one

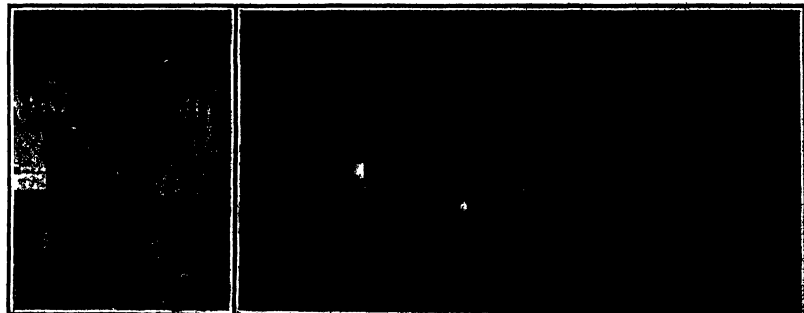
The most interesting among the 17 species on which we observe *Aspergillus niger*, the common brown mold which attacks many substances and especially fatness horse dung. *Clavosporium oryzae* and *Rhizopus oryzae* which are used in the Orient in the production of fermented liquors from rice. *Aspergillus niger* and *Aspergillus oryzae* which is used for the same purpose by the Chinese and was introduced into Europe by Dr. Oelmeter director of the Pasteur Institute at Lille and a

duces the characteristic green veins.

The genus *Aspergillus* is represented by 6 species. *A. niger* is used in Japan in the fermentation of the national beverage sake or rice beer. *A. fumigatus* attacks the mucous surfaces of the respiratory organs of birds and produces a pseudo-tuberculosis in pigeons fattened by the cramming process. There are 16 species of *Microsporum* including the celebrated *M. nigrum* (also called *Aspergillus niger*) which was studied so minutely by Raulin.

The collection also contains various fungi which are parasitic upon insects including *Oospora* which is fatal caterpillars and *Botrytis* of which one species causes the muscardine disease of silkworms and others have been employed to destroy May beetles and locusts.

Alfred M. Angot director of the meteorological service of France has reported to the Academy of Sciences that no exceptional variations in terrestrial magnetism or atmospheric electricity were observed in the neighborhood of Paris during the night of May 12th 19th when Halley's comet was in transit. The meteorological observations also failed to indicate any disturbances that could be attributed to the comet.



Sterilizing the bottles.

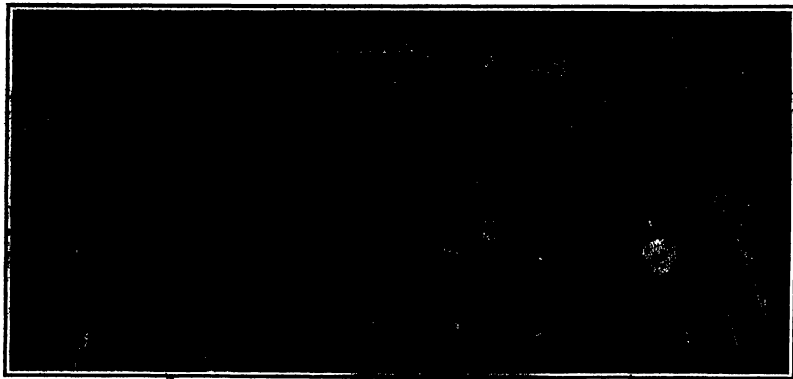
Planting the fungi.

# THE TEMPERATURE OF THE STARS

By means of his heterochrome stellar photometer M. Charles Nordmann has succeeded in obtaining in addition to other interesting results measurements of the effective temperatures of certain stars. The apparatus consists of a lateral attachment to the eyepiece of an equatorial telescope and like the Zollner's photometer it allows the focal image of the star to be placed in juxtaposition to that of an artificial

circular aperture the light of an Osram metallic filament lamp of four volts and one ampere. This little lamp is operated by storage batteries and regulated by means of a rheostat and an accurate volt meter. There is no difficulty in maintaining the differences of potential between the lamp terminals constant to within 1/100 volt by adjusting the rheostat once or twice per hour. This corresponds to an in-

various temperatures between 3550 deg F and 6 00 deg F these temperatures being measured with the Féry pyrometer. The first determinations made with the small horizontal equatorial of the observatory of Paris and the photometer described above showed that this method of monochromatic imaging gives in a simple manner the measurements and ratios of the total luminosity of stars free from the



Nordmann's heterochrome stellar photometer at the Lick Observatory of the Lick Observatory

star. This part of the apparatus contains two Nicol prisms, the third Nicol and the quartz plate of Volz; a photometer being suppressed. Furthermore, between the focus and the eyepiece in the common path of the rays of the real and the artificial star is placed a sliding drum which carries interchangeable slides filled with colored liquids. In this manner a series of mono-chromatic images of the real and artificial stars can be produced. The photometric measurement is made by rendering the images of the two stars equally bright. The images of the real and artificial stars are interposed in the path of the rays from the artificial star, and are provided with graduated circles.

The artificial star which performs the function of a secondary standard is obtained by converging upon a

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comes of the Paris Observatory

the same errors inherent to the older processes. It results furthermore the solution of certain problems of physical astronomy especially the measurement of the temperature of stars. The determination of the temperature is based on the fact that the intensity of the luminous bodies are of equal intensity in their middle portion but of very different intensity at their periphery. The body whose spectrum is brightest in the blue region possesses the higher temperature. Since when the two spectra are compared with the known temperatures the temperatures of the stars can be determined. The critical temperatures of the stars are determined by the use of the Planck's radiation law. The normal temperature for the temperature of the sun is about 5800° K. (about 5200° F.). This is the value of 2500° C. (4500° F.). This is the value of 2500° C. (4500° F.).



Manufacturing the photometer with the aid of an electric furnace.

### THE EVOLUTION OF THE FARM





is customary to force the growth by covering the buds with glass. This is rather a cumbersome process, as it involves the construction of frames over the plants, which must be dismantled before they can be removed to a new location. Furthermore, the heating device that is sometimes employed must be moved as well, which is rather an expensive operation. An improvement on these conditions has been suggested recently. It consists in the use of a portable greenhouse and a separate portable heating plant, which may be connected to the heating pipes of the greenhouse. The greenhouse is mounted on wheels, which travel on tracks or ways. The ways are temporarily laid when moving the greenhouse from one place to another.

Two interesting patents on drinking cups have recently been issued. One of them provides a folding-pocket drinking cup, which consists of a piece of flexible waterproof material folded upon itself to form a cup without any seams through which the water may leak. The cup is covered by a strip of leather, and may be collapsed to form a flat package, so that it can be placed conveniently in the vest pocket. The other cup referred to is adapted particularly for use at soda fountains and public dispensaries of beverages. It is formed of a band of paraffine paper connected by an overlapped joint. The bottom of the cup is made out of a star-shaped blank, the points of which are folded up on the sides of the cup, and serve not only to attach the bottom to the cup, but to reinforce it. The cup is made of tapering form to permit of nesting.

Mr. Dexter M. Rogers, of Boston, Mass., has dedicated to the public an insect-destroying bomb upon which he has just secured a patent. The bomb contains dry poisons in powdered form, and is arranged to be exploded when it reaches a certain height after being discharged from a gun. The poisonous powder is thus distributed in the air, and gradually settles down on the leaves of the trees which are infested with the insects. This method of treating the trees possesses the advantage that the powder will reach all parts of the foliage, and is applied with a great saving of time and labor.

#### PATENTED OPTIC.

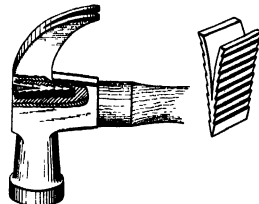
**GUN BORE SIGHTING TELESCOPE.**—A rather ingenious method of sighting the sights of a gun has recently been patented by a German inventor. It consists in placing the telescope in the bore of the gun, with its line of



TELESCOPE FOR SIGHTING GUN SIGHTS.

sight parallel to the axis of the bore. The sighting device is then set to its zero position, and the gun is aimed at a distant object. The eye-piece of the telescope, which is shown in the enlarged sectional view, is fitted with a prism, so that the axis of sight intersects the line of aim at the eye. In this way it is possible to make an observation by merely moving the eye to change the direction of vision, as indicated by the broken lines, whereas heretofore it has been necessary to move the head or even the entire body, in changing from an observation along the sights to one through the telescope.

**ROBUST VANE FOR TOOL HANDLE.**—An inventor in New Mexico has recently hit upon the ingenious scheme of using a resilient wedge for fastening the

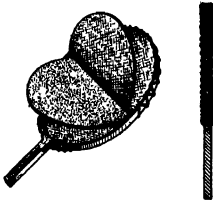


RESILIENT WEDGE FOR FASTENING TOOL HEADS.

heads of tools upon the handles, the advantage of this being that when the wood is compressed through the use of the tool, the wedge will expand, and thus automatically tighten the handle. The wedge, as illustrated herewith is split, and is provided on opposite

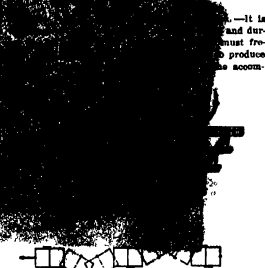
faces with ratchet teeth that serve to prevent its withdrawal from the wood. The tool head should also be formed with ratchet teeth inclined oppositely to those of the wedge, so as to prevent the handle from being withdrawn.

**AIR-COOLING FAN.**—It is well known that the circulation of air increases the rate of evaporation, and thus cools a moist body. It is for this reason that we use a fan to produce an artificial draught of air over the



SELF-COOLING FAN.

face and absorb moisture from the skin. An inventor has recently hit upon the idea of improving the efficiency of the fan by providing it with a moist pad, so that the evaporation will cool the fan. The fan is made up of a rattan frame, as shown in the accompanying drawing, which is covered with two layers of cloth, between which is a layer of felt. The cloth layers may be removed to permit of taking out the felt layer to moisten it. Undoubtedly, when the fan is operated it will grow colder, by reason of the evaporation of moisture from the felt. It is a question, however, whether the added moisture in the air absorbed by the cloth will be added to the draught from the



NARROW WITH AUTOMATIC LIFTER.

fan, which illustrates a method devised by a German inventor of producing this motion automatically. Extending transversely across the drag is a rod or shaft, which at each end is provided with legs pointed at the ends. These legs are oppositely mounted so that, as the drag is drawn along, first one leg and then the other engages the ground, serving temporarily as a fulcrum about which the drag swings in an arc. As a result, the drag is caused to pursue a zigzag course across the field.

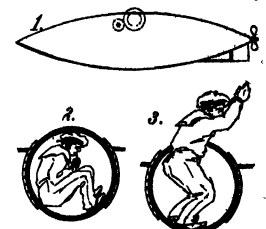
**STUMP-EXTRACTOR.**—The usual method of removing stumps of trees from the ground is to split them by the use of a wedge or a blast of dynamite. The so-



STUMP-EXTRACTOR.

common method of removing stumps is to split them by the use of a wedge or a blast of dynamite. The wedge is a long piece of wood, shaped so that it will split the stump. It is inserted into the stump, and the stump is then split. The stump is then pulled out of the ground by the use of a rope and a pulley. The stump is then cut into smaller pieces, which are then removed from the ground.

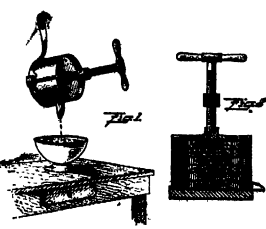
**LIFE-SAVING HATCH FOR SUBMARINE BOATS.**—When a submarine boat has been disabled and sunk, the occupants dare not attempt to escape, for if the hatch should be opened there would be an influx of water,



LIFE-SAVING HATCH FOR SUBMARINE BOATS.

which would drown the crew before they could escape. An inventor has recently hit upon an idea, borrowed possibly from the revolving doors that are used in public buildings, whereby the crew can escape, one at a time, without admitting more than a measured quantity of water at each operation of the hatch. In this case a cylindrical hatch is used, provided with an opening at one side. The hatch is mounted in water-tight bearings, and is connected by means of suitable gearing with a driving shaft, which will turn it on its axis, bringing the opening first into communication with the interior of the vessel, and then with the water outside. To escape from the vessel, a man crawls into the hatch, as indicated in Fig. 2, and then it is turned around to the position shown in Fig. 3, permitting him to dive upward through the water and escape.

**BERRY-JUICE PRESS.**—One of the best foods for invalids is the juice of raw beef, which is cut into fragments and pressed out by means of a small hand press. An inventor in France has recently devised a very simple press for this purpose, which allows of



REMOVED BERRY-JUICE PRESS.

expressing the juice of a large quantity of beef at a time. The press is similar to the ordinary type, being formed of a rotatable receptacle with a plunger, which is moved down by a hand screw. Instead of operating the plunger by the end piece of the handle, the device is arranged to take a number of layers of beef, which are separated by strips of corrugated and perforated metal, as shown in the cross-sectional view, Fig. 1. The press is connected with a small hand screw, through which one layer of beef is pressed out at a time. After the press has been used, the beef is then removed from the press, and the press is then used again.













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## Scientific

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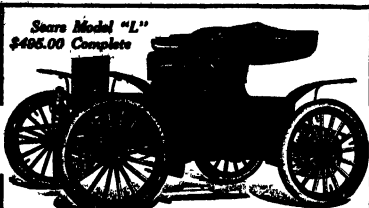
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**VERIFICATION OF THE STARS**  
(Continued from page 501.)  
higher than the temperature of the sun are (8800 deg. C., or 8113 deg. F.). Agree very well with the values obtained for the temperature of the sun, by spectrometric or pyrometric methods. Wilson (8775 deg. C., or 15,845 deg. F.), Schaefer (8800 deg. C., or 15,192 deg. F.), and Perry and Millican (8800 deg. or 9600 deg. F.).  
The following table contains some of Nordmann's determinations of the temperatures of stars.

NAME OF STAR	TEMPERATURE
Antares	5870
Arcturus	4290
Aldebaran	5250
Alcora	7550
Alcora	8800
Alcora	12300
Alcora	12500
Alcora	14000
Alcora	15300
Alcora	16500
Alcora	18000

Independently of these thermal measurements, Nordmann's method, in connection with the spectral analysis of stars, gives information concerning their successive stages of development. These very high temperatures explain the fact that in some of the stars the spectroscopy reveals the existence of elements like hydrogen, nitrogen and carbon, and the compound of carbon and hydrogen called cyanogen, which is in appreciable by heat.

Nordmann's apparatus also opens many new prospects in photometry, a science which is still in its infancy, except as regards the sun, although the exact measurement of stellar radiations, like that of stellar positions, is an indispensable prerequisite to the knowledge of the constitution of the stellar universe. The observations made at Harvard University and at Potsdam, Germany, in connection with the publication of the first photometric star catalogues, have begun to bias the path, which astronomers have thought less difficult to follow than it really is. In determining stellar magnitude, the American and German observers merely measured with the photometer the total luminosity of each star, but, as the stars are of different colors, the values thus obtained are affected by errors of physiological origin. Furthermore, it has long been known that estimations of the brightness of variable stars, especially red stars, exhibit great individual differences. A comparison of the catalogues of Harvard and Potsdam shows differences in the recorded brightness of red stars if in one catalogue the rate of the brightness of a red star to that of a white star is represented by 1/2, it will be represented in the other catalogue by 3/2. These system atic differences appear to be due to two distinct causes. The first source of error is purely physiological and consists in the fact that sensations of color are produced by the excitation of the terminal elements of the optic nerve, while the retina, and which are of three different sorts, sensitive respectively, and almost exclusively, to rays of the red, the green, and the blue and violet portions of the spectrum. Now this relative sensitiveness varies greatly in different individuals, as is actually illustrated by the phenomena and pathological cases of Daltonism, or color blindness. The luminous sensation produced by a given star, that is to say, the aggregate effect, imparted upon the elements of the three different kinds, differs in different individuals. The second cause of error is found, apparently, in the phenomenon described by Partsch, which may be expressed as follows: If two sources of light, one blue and the other red, appear equally bright to the eye, and if the brightness of each source is then diminished in the same proportion, the red light will appear less bright than the blue. The result is that the value of a star depends, other things being equal, upon the magnitude of the



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star and the aperture of the telescope. Additional complications are introduced by the age of the astronomer, the position of his eye in respect to the eye piece, the degree of ocular fatigue, etc. Fortunately, Nordmann's photometric method eliminates these errors in the determination of the total luminosity of stars. It makes possible an exact study of the colors of stars and of the dispersion of light in interstellar space. Finally, it will undoubtedly give information concerning the intrinsic mechanism of the strange and mysterious transformations of variable stars of all classes.

#### A Storm-Warning Service for Astronomers.

Dr. Franz Linke, director of the Meteorological Institute of the Physikalischer Verein at Frankfurt-on-the-Main, has published a report on the special storm-warning service that he organized last summer in connection with the International Astronomical Expedition. This service, being the first of its kind, was experimental, but proved so successful that the prediction of thunderstorms will be a feature of all future astronomical expeditions on a large scale, especially if held in the region of frequent thunderstorms.

The prediction of large general storms can be safely left to the national weather services that now exist in all civilized countries. Local storms, however, and especially thunderstorms, are notoriously difficult to forecast on the basis of the widely scattered reports that make up our ordinary weather map, and that all that the forecaster ordinarily has at his command. The attention of the Frankfurt service was directed especially to the prediction of thunderstorms. The life-history of these storms is now well understood thanks to the brilliant investigations of a small group of meteorologists of whom M. Thunberg is the most conspicuous. In the great majority of cases they sweep across the country in a long line that may be compared to the front of an advancing army—the "thunderstorm front"—at a speed averaging, in Europe, about 40 kilometers an hour. The line of advance keeps a position more or less parallel to itself, and its progress is not difficult to predict, if its existence and position are known at any given time. The proposal of a successful thunderstorm prediction is a dense network of reporting stations and a system of adequate telegraphic communication with the central station.

Dr. Linke engaged the services of fifty five observers, constituting a pilot line of 100 kilometers radius around the city of Frankfurt. These were mainly recruited from among the volunteer observers already reporting, but not by telegraph, to the existing meteorological institutions of Southern Germany. These persons were requested to send an "urgent" telegram to Frankfurt whenever a thunderstorm or a wind-storm (which is first-coming to the thunderstorm) appeared in their vicinity between the hours of 7 A. M. and 7 P. M. The compensation offered was a free return ticket to the exposition and a copy of the published results of the experiment.

The result of these arrangements was most gratifying, as with one or two exceptions, all the thirty-seven thunderstorms that reached Frankfurt during the three months of the expedition were duly heralded an hour or more before their arrival.

It is noted that no aircraft attempted to fly in the face of providence—and the weather forecast—except the case of "Zep." which began its famous voyage to Cologne against the advice of the forecaster and promptly ran into a heavy shower of rain.

The entire cost of the service was only 800 marks (\$150), an insignificant amount compared to the value of a single large ship, to which, as well as the lives of astronauts, an effective storm-warning service accordingly offers a cheap form of insurance.



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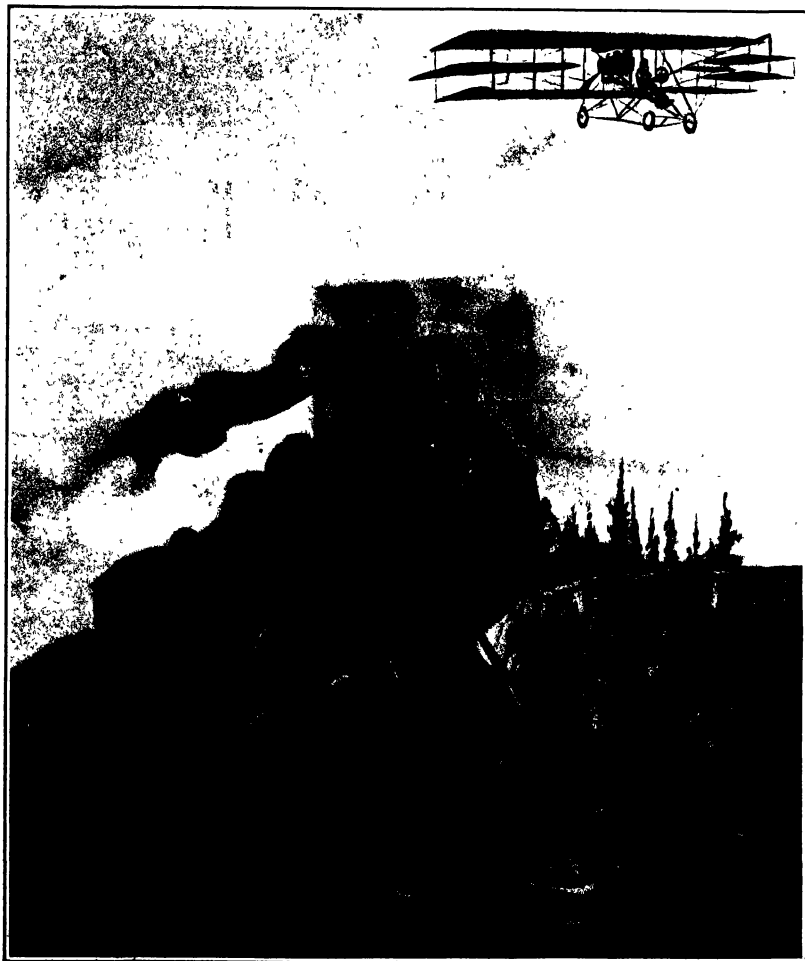
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Hamilton's biplane traveling above and beside the locomotive of the special train during his flight from New York to Philadelphia and return on June 19th.

THE LATEST FORM OF RACING.—[See page 521.]



## EXHIBIT 2

The British government has placed a submarine bell off the Lizard. It is suspended from a heavy chain, which was lowered to the bed of the ocean at a point about two miles from land. The bell is connected by cable with the Lighthouse, from which it will be operated. It is anticipated that, since steamers passing up the Channel all approach the Lizard, the bell will be of great assistance to them, particularly in time of fog.

Very gratifying is the steady growth in efficiency of the successive submarines which are being tried out for the United States navy. The "Salmon," built at the Port River yards and designed for 11 knots at the surface and 10 knots submerged, established last month a surface record of 13½ knots, and a record below the surface of 12½ knots. Four torpedoes discharged when the ship was at full speed in the submerged condition, scored what was practically a series of bull-eyes.

It is reported by the Engineering Agency of South Africa, Johannesburg, that an important body of limestone has been found in Natal, within thirty miles of the railway and within seventy-five miles of the coast. Limestone has been located in large quantities at a distance of only a mile from the ore body, and coking coal has also been discovered in Natal. In view of the fact that the River Tugela, which is suitable for the development of hydro-electric power, runs through the iron ore property, it is likely that the new find will be turned to immediate commercial account.

The removal of the twelve-year-old, 29-story Gibraltar Building at Wall and Nassau Streets in this city is certainly a record in house-wrecking. The time allowed was 45 days at a price of \$65,000, with a penalty of \$500 for every day exceeding that period. The work will be done within the specified time. The most difficult work has been the removal of the brick backing of the outside stone work. The steel frame was taken down, piece by piece, by knocking off the heads of the rivets and driving the latter out with a drift pin. The steel work will be available for other construction.

The system of transmitting train orders in this country by the telephone is making rapid strides. Statistics filed by the Interstate Commerce Commission show that the telephone is being used for this purpose on 395 roads in the United States, on which 26,844 miles of roads are operated by this method. On ten of the roads telephone dispatching covers 500 miles or more, and on five roads the distance covered exceeds 1,000 miles, this being the case on the Atchafalaya, Topeka & Santa Fe, the Chicago, Burlington & Quincy, the Great Northern, the Illinois Central, and the Pennsylvania Railroad.

The Bergen tunnel under Jersey City Heights through which for forty years all passenger trains of the Erie Railroad have been run, will be abandoned on July 1st for passenger service, and will be given over wholly to the movement of freight. After that date passenger trains will make use of a great open air four-track cut, upon which the contractors have been at work for the past three years. The cut, which extends for 4,400 feet through the Heights, is 88 feet wide at the bottom, and varies from 45 to 85 feet in depth. It is intersected by four tunnels, where the material has been left in place to carry the street above, but none of these is of greater length than an ordinary train.

In a burn-fire test of the reinforced concrete floor of a tall building, the following excellent results were obtained. The floor panels measured 33 feet by 50 feet center to center of the columns, and they were required to stand a test load of 300 pounds per square foot with a deflection not above three-quarters of an inch. In the test, the deflection under this load was only one-eighth of an inch. With a hot fire beneath the floor, there was an increased deflection of 1 1/4 inches. Water from a fire hose was then directed against the bottom of the now heated concrete, when the floor rose seven-eighths of an inch, leaving one inch of concrete above the inch deflection. This test, it could be surmised, was made of a floor in the complete building.

The New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroad here received from the Westinghouse Company a new high-pressure electric locomotive for the high-speed passenger service between New York and Stamford which is of double the capacity of those already in service on the New Haven road. The specification called for a locomotive which could haul a 1,700-ton freight train at a speed of 60 miles per hour. It was found that the train resistance was not more than 18 tons per mile. The locomotive was able to handle a freight as well as passenger train at a speed of 60 miles per hour. In fact, it handles a heavy freight engine and a passenger train better than a locomotive of standard 4,400-horsepower design.

## ELECTRICITY

It has been proposed that the surplus water from the canal locks at Lockport be utilized to generate current which may be employed in lighting the Erie Canal from the Tonawandas to Albion. Surely the advantages such a system would offer would well repay the cost of installation and maintenance.

An electric cable has been laid in Oneida Lake connecting Frenchman's Island with the mainland. The distance is a little over a mile. The cable is to conduct current at 6,000 volts to the island, where it will be stepped down to 110 volts to be used for lighting the pavilions and amusement apparatus of the resort. This is said to be the first long-distance, high-tension submarine cable ever laid.

The United States Senate has passed the bill introduced by Senator Dewey governing wireless telegraphy. It requires that all wireless stations secure licenses from the Department of Commerce and Labor. The bill aims to prevent interference of messages and the sending of false distress signals and gives the army and navy messages the priority over commercial messages.

For some years wireless telegraph experiments have been conducted by Dr Frederick H. Millener for the Union Pacific Railroad. It is stated that the road is soon to establish a wireless telegraph system of communication with moving trains. Tall towers are to be erected at Sydney and Cheyenne, which will have a wide radius of communication. The system should be invaluable in the case of the interruption of wire service by storms.

Illustrative of the rapid improvement in metal lamp filaments is the recent decision of the Chicago Railway Company to install tantalum lamps on all new cars and cars that have to be rebuilt. Before arriving at this decision, a series of tests was conducted, extending over a period of six months. Lamps were installed on cars in regular service and accurate records were kept which demonstrated their efficiency for this class of work.

[illegible]

On circuit tests, it was found that the voltage across the transformer secondary winding was approximately 150 volts. The voltage across the primary winding was approximately 150 volts. The voltage across the secondary winding was approximately 150 volts. The voltage across the primary winding was approximately 150 volts.

A breakdown of transformers under short circuiting of high potential lines would be greater than the chance of a shock from secondary of 240 to 300 volts. For this reason, the recommendation regarding circuits of more than 150 volts was withdrawn.

Now that the thunder storm season is here, the Denver City Tramway Company is instructing its employees in the safest method of running their cars during a storm. The motormen are ordered to let the cars coast as much as possible, so that in case of being struck by lightning, the vital apparatus of the car would not be so liable to injury. The motormen are also instructed to note, if possible, the position of the controller handle when the car is struck by lightning. If the current were off, the injury would probably be confined to the controller bus. Otherwise the current would flow through the controller and the trolley wire at the base of the trolley pole. In the latter event, it would be necessary to have the car pushed back to the barn.

Twice time is transmitted some days ago from the Hiffel Tower by wireless telegraphy to all wireless stations and ships fitted with wireless apparatus within a radius of 2,600 and 3,000 miles. The time was sent by means of a special apparatus, which, at night, and again at two minutes and four minutes after the receipt of a signal will not enable a ship to determine its position or even its longitude, but will serve as a check on the chronometer. This test of the chronometer is of great importance, because of the question of the kind of error, in longitude, to which in these days of accurate navigation a ship is liable to. An error commensurate with the time at sea and as all ships arrive at least three hours earlier than they would have done if they had not been able to ascertain their ship's longitude—that is within a few seconds—but the number of time signals sent over the world is so small it may be hoped that every steamer has the opportunity to ascertain its own chronometer more or less frequently.

## SCIENCE

Prof. H. H. Bernard informs us that on June 8th he obtained a very good photograph of Halley's comet. The plate showed the tail drifting off into space, and a new one forming in a different direction.

The collection of fresh-water sponges of the U S S R National Museum is now being critically examined by Dr Nelson Annandale, superintendent of the Indian Museum in Calcutta, who is an accepted authority on this subject. Under the title of "Description of a New Species of Spongilla from China" there has just been issued paper No. 1737 of the Proceedings of the U S S R National Museum in this publication Dr Annandale describes as new *Spongilla* (*Stretospongia*) *strenua* which appears to be allied to *Spongilla aspinosa* Potts from which however it differs in its compact structure and lack of flesh spicules. This species was collected by the Soviet in southern Kwang Su, near Shanghai, China. The type is in the collection of the U S S R National Museum.

Prof. Negro of the University of Boulogne, has studied the glass plates of dew. The precipitation was made on glass plates exposed in immediate contact with the soil for several hours, beginning at about eight o'clock in the evening. It is interesting to note that the water vapor was deposited entirely on the surface turned toward the ground while the opposite surface was quite free from any trace of moisture. From Negro's experiments it would seem that, as in the case of the rain, the activity of the dew disappears almost entirely in very shallow soil, which may be placed at not much more than half an hour. The maximum radio-activity is detected not immediately after the introduction of the plates into an electro-static apparatus, but some minutes afterwards, in which respect it differs from snow and rain.

In one of the Leopoldsdorf workings a blower of inflammable gas has been known at a distance of 1,600 feet, since August, 1904. The gas contains 57 per cent of hydrogen, 44 per cent of methane and 15 per cent of other gases including neon and helium. The helium is greatly preponderant over the neon but the two together form about 0.17 per cent of the original gas. The hydrogen is the cause of the water removal of the hydrogens. The German chemist E. Schuchardt investigated this gas and he calculates that at least 12 cubic meters of the above gases have escaped since the blower was tapped. He attributes the existence of the helium to the degradation of radium salts. The gas was first observed in the waters of the sea which was furnished the degeneration of the radium salts as a result of the radioactive decomposition of water, the equivalent oxygen having disappeared in converting ferrous into ferric salts in the carbonate.

Mr. Austin Hobart Clark, an accepted authority on crinoids, has recently published two papers in the *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences* dealing with the origin of these animals. One of these papers, No. 1740, is "On the Origin of Crinoids," and the other, No. 1741, is "On the Evolution of Crinoids." In the first of these papers Mr. Clark assumes the probable relationship between the columnar crinoids and the graptolites, and in the second he assumes the relationship between the columnar crinoids and the graptolites, and how widely different types of columnar crinoids may be reduced logically to a primitive common ancestor. Among his conclusions from the evidence he has collected is that the columnar crinoids are not related to the fossil crinoids may be derived by supposing them to be the homologous of the central plate of the crinoid plate articulation. The second paper No. 1741, bearing the title "On the Evolution of Crinoids," deals with the evolution of the crinoid and the elongated and developed transverse articulated frustules which have metamorphosed into delicate articulated frustules. The second paper No. 1741, bearing the title "On the Evolution of Crinoids," deals with the evolution of the crinoid and the elongated and developed transverse articulated frustules which have metamorphosed into delicate articulated frustules. The second paper No. 1741, bearing the title "On the Evolution of Crinoids," deals with the evolution of the crinoid and the elongated and developed transverse articulated frustules which have metamorphosed into delicate articulated frustules.

The late Prof. Garrett, of the U. S. Weather Bureau was working at the time of his recent sudden death on a very promising method of long range forecasting based on the observation of departures from normal conditions in the temperature of the surface of the sea. Telegraphic reports of the pressure at European and Asiatic stations are received every morning in Washington, and were utilized for this purpose. The study of the changes in the temperature of the surface of the sea of atmospheric phenomena in parts of the world far remote from one another—is now occupying the serious attention of meteorologists in all countries, and one of the most important branches in the recent development of their science. The other branches of the study of the atmosphere by means of kites and balloons. An international commission was recently organized under the presidency of M. Leon Teisserenc de Bort, to study the changes in the temperature of the surface of the sea, and the graphic interchange of meteorological observations, so that in the future, if the plans of the commission can be realized, the forecaster will have at his disposal a vast wealth of material embracing the whole world, instead of only such a meagre amount as is now available.



## MODERN STEEL LOCK BAR PIPE CONSTRUCTION

BY FRANK C. PERKINS

In considering the use of steel pipe as compared with cast-iron pipe, it should be remembered that the value of water pipe depends on carrying capacity, strength and durability as well as cost. The accompanying illustration, Fig. 1, shows a 48-inch lock bar pipe lying in a trench at Philadelphia, Pa., while the details of construction are noted in Fig. 2. It is held that the cost is about 5 per cent more than riveted pipe, but it has greater strength and carrying capacity.

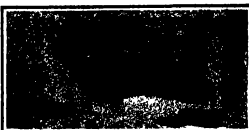
It may be stated that this capacity depends on friction, and riveted pipe presents an obstruction at every rivet and every circular and longitudinal seam.

It is also claimed that the uniform section of the lock bar pipe without any obstruction of any kind from end to end of each length of pipe, materially reduces friction. Some engineers say the carrying capacity of lock bar pipe is from 10 to 15 per cent greater than riveted pipe or is equal to well-coated, well-laid iron pipe.

Tests on 30-inch pipe at Lockport, N. Y., in 1909, showed a friction loss less than that given by Watson's Tables for cast-iron pipe. It is well known that steel pipe is materially stronger than cast-iron pipe. During a cloudburst in 1903, two 48-inch riveted steel pipe lines carrying 50,000,000 gallons per day for Newark, N. J., were undermined and left unsupported for four days for over 35 feet, and in addition to the weight of the pipe and the water passing through them (about 15 tons), there were some thirty uprooted trees piled up over the pipe which supported the immense weight and pressure, without damage.

It is conceded that cast iron is brittle and treacherous at best and though apparently sound one day, may prove defective the next, and break without a moment's notice.

It is of course true that the strength of any steel



Before closing. After closing.  
Fig. 2.—LOCK BAR STEEL PIPE, TAPER JOINT.

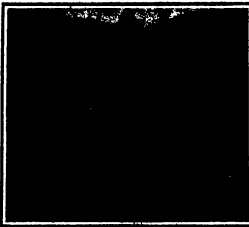


Fig. 1.—LOCK BAR PIPE OF 48-INCH DIAMETER IN TRENCH AT PHILADELPHIA, PA.

pipe is equal to the strength of the joints. Single riveted joints have an efficiency of about 85 per cent, double riveted joints about 90 per cent, triple riveted double, butt-joint joints about 95 per cent, and welded joints about 90 per cent. Lock bar joints have an efficiency of 100 per cent, and have greater strength than plate themselves, as all tests result in a failure of the plate, without injury to the joints. A 48-inch diameter 7/16-inch plate lock bar pipe was tested to 1,050 pounds pressure, and the metal of the plate was stretched 4 1/2 inches with neither injury to the lock bar joint nor the least leakage along the same. Further pressure was impossible, because of the blowing out of the riveted reinforcing plate at the inlet and the gaps.

It is maintained that lock bar pipe is from 50 to 80 per cent stronger than riveted pipe and 10 per cent stronger than welded pipe, and experience has shown that the natural life of steel pipe when properly made and laid is fully equal to that of cast-iron pipe.

Without doubt the life of all metal is less than it was twenty years ago, as nowadays electrolysis, sulphurous acid, galvanic action and other agents greatly accelerate corrosion. It is therefore most difficult to compare the life of pipe laid within the last twenty years and pipe laid prior to that time, because of these constantly increasing corrosive influences.

According to experiments on the reception of radio-telegraphic signals when transmitting with a spark gap in compressed air, as compared with signals received when an ordinary spark gap was used, there appears to be no advantage in using compressed air for this purpose. While the dielectric strength of the air is enormously increased, so also is the resistance to the oscillatory spark, both appearing to increase in about the same ratio.

## THE WEARING QUALITY OF MANGANESE STEEL

Manganese steel is by no means a new material, but its application has been slow because of the difficulties which manifest themselves in giving it final form. It seems to have been discovered by Hadfield's Steel Foundry Company, Sheffield, England, some thirty or forty years ago, when seeking a hard and tough substitute for steel when used for castings. It was found that the mere increase of carbon in the steel did not have the desired effect. Steel having a carbon content as high as 1 per cent was unsuccessfully tried. It was known that when the manganese content of a steel somewhat exceeded 3.75 per cent, the alloy would be brittle. What was not known and what the Hadfield Company found out was that if the manganese were increased to a point ranging anywhere from 7 per cent to 30 per cent a steel might be produced which is remarkably strong and tough. Now this reversal of a leading property of an alloy by merely increasing the proportion of one of its constituents is, as R. A. Hadfield pointed out, not without precedent. In forming alloys of copper and tin, the resultant alloys seem to become harder and more brittle as the tin content rises from a low point up to a considerable percentage, say 25 per cent, but when more tin is present than the soft and tough copper, the alloy becomes softer.

It was early found, however, that manganese steel was a very refractory metal to machine. The properties of hardness and toughness produced a combination that was very successful in resisting the cutting edge of the tool. And this characteristic is, even today, a bar to the application of this metal. We have high-speed steels capable of enormous performance when used against the pure carbon steels and cast iron. But manganese steels still hold out. Almost the only practicable thing to do is to use the grinder. Now the grinding machine is of late become a strong competitor of the ordinary machine tool. But its development has hardly been carried far enough to enable it to handle commercially the multiplicity of cutting operations necessary to enable manganese steel to have a general application to all the purposes for which it is highly adapted. Further, it has been found difficult to roll.

But so great are the intrinsic capabilities of this material for certain uses that, in spite of the difficulties of giving it the desired form, it has been pretty rapidly acquiring friends. Consider, for example, the case of the Boston Elevated Railway Company. This corporation operates its transportation system on a

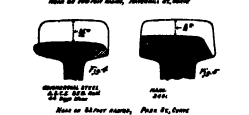
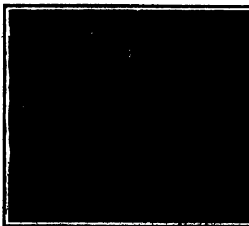


Diagram showing extraordinary wearing qualities of manganese steel rails.



This curve has the small radius of 35 feet.

THE PARK STREET CURVE OF THE BOSTON ELEVATED RAILWAY ON WHEEL RIGIDITY WHEEL OF RAILWAY COMPANY.

others have radii between 100 and 150 feet. Soon after operation began, there is change because of the wear with the fact that an enormous destruction of rails was taking place on the curves. This has been ascribed largely to the sharpness of the curves, and to the combination of grades and curves. It was on the curve of the Park Street south-bound track where the ordinary rail had a life of but about 44 days. The radius here is 35 feet. At the same locality, an open-hearth rail went out of service in even less time. At Adams Square, where there is a curve of 89 feet radius, a low-carbon Bessemer, an open hearth, and a high-carbon Bessemer rail were all tried. The last was the only one which had even a moderate life—10 1/2 months. Nickel steel was tried on a 100-foot curve at Haverhill Street. But its life was less than that of a high-carbon Bessemer rail at the same location, the two periods being 6 months 13 days and 11 months 13 days. Apparently, however, better results were obtained from nickel steel than this instance would indicate, as Mr. Steward, the roadmaster, regards the nickel-steel rails as comparable well with ordinary steel. The company tried manganese-steel rails as well. In one case, a nickel-steel rail was put in between two manganese-steel rails, with the result that after 104 days it had to be taken out because of its failure to equal its companions. The center of the head had been worn down over 1/4 inch, while the corresponding position on a manganese-steel rail disclosed a remainder of but 1/16 inch. But perhaps a more striking example is that of a manganese-steel rail at the Park Street station, where the wear was the same in a period over four times as long. The Park Street curve of 35 feet radius on April 26th, 1908, showed less than 200 square inches of surface amounting to only about 9/16 inch after the lapse of 2,496 days. The corresponding wearing on the Park Street curve of 100 feet radius was 1/16 inch. An examination of Fig. 1 and it will show, however, that the edge, where the transition begins, shows some 1/16 inch, curved considerably. In fact, the corporation has produced the manganese-steel rail from side delivery to foundry of a single cast. It is probable that this, perhaps a large part of the wear from the head has been transferred. In any case, however, the manganese-steel rail is the only one which has been used as well as that of the open.

Now, it should be observed, the manganese-steel rail is not a new material, but a new application. (Continued on page 517.)

## THE CONTAGIOUS DISEASES OF METALS

THE RESEARCHES OF PROF. ERNEST COHEN

It has been known for some time, and probably even in antiquity, that metals are subject to diseased conditions. Prof. Ernest Cohen's researches have thrown considerable light on this question and have demonstrated, moreover, the contagious nature of such diseases, that is to say, a piece of diseased metal has the power of infecting, by a sort of catalytic action, a piece of sound metal with which it is in contact.

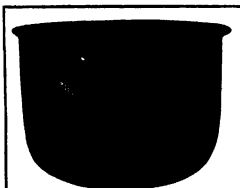
## TIN PEST

In 1861 Erdmann, in a communication made to the Royal Society of Sciences at Leipzig, called attention to a peculiar structural modification of tin which he had observed in some old organ pipes. He attributed the change to the vibrations to which the metal had been subjected. In 1869 Pritzsche of St. Petersburg published observations of similar phenomena, and expressed the opinion that the alteration in the nature of the tin was due to the action of severe cold to which such tin had been exposed, and verified the correctness of this theory experimentally. Other investigators turned their attention to this subject, but the true nature of the modification and the exact conditions governing its appearance and development were not fully understood until they were determined by Prof. Cohen.

The disease studied by Erdmann and Pritzsche is designated by Prof. Cohen as tin pest. The metal thus affected swells in spots, forming wartlike blisters, from which small drops issue and hang suspended in very much the same manner that drops of quicksilver will adhere to polished copper rods. In the further progress of the disease, the blisters become larger and the metallic gloss disappears more and more. The interior of the mass is affected last, as can be shown by sawing through the metal whose surface has become quite dull. When the entire mass has been transformed, it crumbles readily, and consists partly of a granular powder similar to sand, and partly of more or less consistent fibrous lumps of all sizes up to that of a fist. When a piece of tin is cooled artificially, the modification appears first at isolated spots, from which it spreads in wart-like blisters and later forms a columnar structure.

Tin thus modified by the action of cold is distinctly gray, the application of heat produces a remarkable change. Even by merely covering it with hot water, the dark gray color is caused to become materially lighter, approaching that of ordinary tin. The change is due to the temperature exclusively. If a specimen of powdery modified tin is heated in a closed vessel by means of a water bath, it not only assumes a lighter color but decreases in volume quite perceptibly. If it is then cooled again below the freezing point of mercury, it again becomes almost as dark as

it was before heating. If modified, tin is heated to fusion, an appreciable proportion will remain in the modified state. The molten portion will upon solidification assume the appearance of ordinary tin, and if cooled to a low temperature, it can be transformed



Brass kettle corroded by the wrought metal disease.

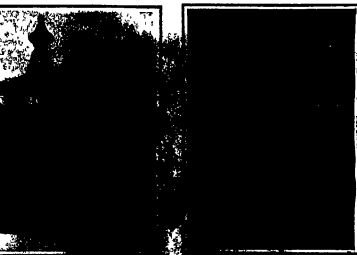
again into the gray modification. Ordinary tin has a specific gravity of 7.28, but gray tin is considerably lighter, having a gravity of only 5.75.

Prof. Cohen drew his attention at first to determining the temperature at which ordinary tin is

formation might proceed in either direction.

Prof. Cohen employed two independent methods for determining this critical temperature. One, an electrical method, consisted in bringing two separate bodies of gray tin into a vessel containing a 10 per cent solution of chloroannate of ammonium. The two bodies of tin are connected with an apparatus permitting the experimenter to observe and measure any electromotive force arising in the cell. As long as both bodies are of the same temperature, there is no electromotive force. But if one of the tin bodies is given the temperature of boiling water, and the other that of cold water, the heated body is transformed into ordinary white tin, while the cooled body remains gray. The electromotive force manifested under these conditions was measured at different temperatures. At about 20 deg. C the electromotive force was equal to zero, indicating that the critical temperature is in the neighborhood of 20 deg. C. Prof. Cohen also found that the presence of the chloroannate of ammonium solution accelerated the transformation considerably, in both directions.

The other method was a volumetric one based on the fact, stated above, that the two forms of tin have different specific gravity. The apparatus employed is very similar to an ordinary thermometer, except that the capillary tube is open at the top. The lower part of the bulb is filled with gray tin, the upper part and a portion of the capillary tube with a liquid inert relatively to tin, such as petroleum. The apparatus is heated to a temperature (say 25 deg. C) a few degrees above the probable critical point, so that a portion of the gray tin is transformed into the white variety. Then the apparatus is kept for some time at a constant temperature of say 21 deg. C and the behavior of the petroleum column is observed by means of the scale. After a few minutes it will be found to have fallen a few millimeters, thus indicating that 21 deg. C is still above the critical temperature, for as long as the formation of white tin continues, the mass of tin contracts in volume, owing to the greater specific gravity of white tin. The temperature being then kept constant for a time as at 25 deg. C, observation will show a rise of the petroleum column, thus indicating that the volume of the tin has increased by the formation of the specifically lighter gray tin, so that the critical point must be above 25 deg. C. By successive operations a gradual approach to the critical



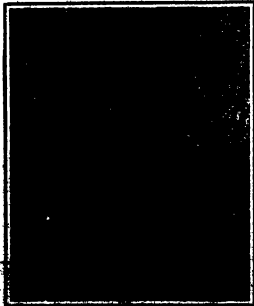
Antique coffee pot perforated by the tin disease.

Results of inoculation with wrought metal disease.

transformed into the gray modification, the results obtained by former investigators differing widely, some having found 35 deg. (Centigrade) as the critical point, others 100 deg., etc. Pritzsche's experiments indicating that the transformation was enantiotropic or reversible, it was to be expected that there would be a definite temperature at which the trans-

formation might proceed in either direction. Prof. Cohen employed two independent methods for determining this critical temperature. One, an electrical method, consisted in bringing two separate bodies of gray tin into a vessel containing a 10 per cent solution of chloroannate of ammonium. The two bodies of tin are connected with an apparatus permitting the experimenter to observe and measure any electromotive force arising in the cell. As long as both bodies are of the same temperature, there is no electromotive force. But if one of the tin bodies is given the temperature of boiling water, and the other that of cold water, the heated body is transformed into ordinary white tin, while the cooled body remains gray. The electromotive force manifested under these conditions was measured at different temperatures. At about 20 deg. C the electromotive force was equal to zero, indicating that the critical temperature is in the neighborhood of 20 deg. C. Prof. Cohen also found that the presence of the chloroannate of ammonium solution accelerated the transformation considerably, in both directions.

Since all tin utensils employed by us are made of the white modification, it follows that they are gen-



A sink block of brass the surface with tin infection.



Infected leaf tin.



Metal infected by tin pest.



Infected sheet tin from Rosenberg (U. S. Hall).

CONTAGIOUS DISEASES OF METALS.

erily in an unstable condition, and liable to be transformed partly into the gray variety, except to be transformed when the temperature exceeds 60 deg. Fahrenheit. The second method described above was also still used to ascertain at what temperature the transformation of white tin into gray tin proceeds with the greatest rapidity and this was found to be the case at about 45 deg. Centigrade below zero (about 54 deg. F. below zero).

An interesting discovery was that the transformation is hastened considerably by the presence of a few particles or "seeds" of gray tin. It was also found that if an "infected" piece or object of white tin is left to itself at temperatures below 65 deg. Fahrenheit, the transformation will proceed constantly and with increasing rapidity, for particles of gray tin, as soon as it is formed, become "seeds" for new grain accelerating the transformation. Prof. Cohen has given this phenomenon the name of tin pest in view of the germ like or infectious action of the gray tin particles, and also in view of the fact that the tin so attacked is practically ruined, since the restoration of tin by melting is attended with great losses owing to the strong oxidation which takes place during the heating, on account of the finely divided condition of the gray tin.

The formation of blisters during the conversion of the tin into the gray variety is a natural consequence of the increase of volume. Since gray tin is about 35 per cent lighter than white tin.

Tin articles which have been exposed to low temperatures for a long time, my several centuries, would naturally be expected to exhibit a maximum of deterioration. This is indeed the case, as has been proved by the condition of antique tin vases, medals, and other objects dug up in our time. In museums, too, the deterioration of tin articles has been observed frequently, but the cause was not understood and no remedy was known. In the light of Prof. Cohen's discovery, the remedy is simple: we have only to see to it that the articles are never exposed to a temperature below 18 deg. Centigrade (65 deg. Fahrenheit). Investigation has shown that in many cases where excessive and apparently unaccountable deterioration of tin articles had been reported, the articles had been exposed to low temperatures during the winter.

#### Wrought Metal Diseases

Strang phenomena were observed by R. von Hasslinger at the tinued solder seams of an air-compressor made of tinned sheet iron. The solder had melted away in spots, as it were, and had assumed a crystalline structure, the tin covering the sheet iron. It became granular and dull on its entire surface. It was unlikely that the result was due to tin pest, since the compressor had seldom, if ever, been exposed to temperatures below 18 deg. Centigrade. R. von Hasslinger ascertained that pieces of this diseased tin would infect sound tin, and that this was apparently independent of the temperature thus indicating again that the form of tin pest previously recognized was not the cause of this newly observed transformation. The tin became crystallized in minutes warlike bodies and the dull portion would spread gradually, but the rate of growth decreased with the increasing distance from the center of infection. R. von Hasslinger thought that the phenomenon was due to crystallization, and continued his experiments, showing that the modified tin had a lower melting point than the original metal, about 205 deg. Centigrade instead of 232 deg. He also found that tin foil infected on one side would become modified on both sides. Other experiments made by him, however, seemed to indicate that the crystallization theory was erroneous, and he published the result of his observations with an acknowledgment that he was unable to account for them. An untimely death, however, prevented R. von Hasslinger from concluding his investigations, his teacher, Prof. Guido Oldenbach, of Prague, drew Prof. Cohen's attention to the unexplained phenomena and suggested that he be permitted to continue his research.

Prof. Cohen repeated von Hasslinger's experiments and verified them in many ways. He ascertained that the small lead contents of the tin would in no way be held responsible for the result. He first believed that the phenomena might be explained by the formation of the rhombic modification of tin which is unstable at temperatures below 181 deg. C., having a tendency to resume the more stable form of tin. This hypothesis had been correct, the phenomena should have been absent at temperatures of 181 deg. C. and above. Experiments, however, showed that the transformation into the more dull powdery form of tin took place at 184 deg. C. even more rapidly than at lower temperatures. This hypothesis therefore had to be abandoned.

Prof. Cohen then turned to another explanation, based on two well-known facts. First, that a metal which has been subjected to a tensile or a compression strain (such metal being designated as "wrought metal" by Prof. Cohen) has an electrolytic action pressure higher than the same metal if it

has not been subjected to mechanical forces; second, that several metals, tin among others, have the property of recrystallization, that is, of exhibiting a growth of their individual crystal grains, more particularly at high temperatures.

It is well known that two specimens of "wrought metal" are seldom absolutely identical in an electrolytic sense, and "wrought metal" is in an unstable condition, having a tendency to return to the condition of "unwrought metal." This tendency, slight at ordinary temperatures, ought theoretically to be strengthened by an increase of temperature within certain limits, and it is also to be expected that inoculation with the form most stable under the particular conditions of the case, would hasten the transformation. These theoretical deductions have been fully confirmed by experiments.

Prof. Cohen cleaned some plates of tinned sheet iron with hydrochloric acid and potassium chlorate. This produced, in a short time, the well-known metallic moist effect. The surface is then washed carefully and rubbed with a fine handkerchief. The plate so prepared is pressed in a vise against a highly polished plate made of sheet iron, and upon heating to 184 deg. C. the polished plate becomes infected and acquires the property of infecting others. If however both plates are highly polished, no modification will occur. Another experiment consisted in applying to a metal plate such as mentioned above, some powdered infected tin foil and on top of this, a polished plate of tinned sheet iron. Heating to 100 deg. C. caused the polished plate to become infected immediately, while the metal plate remained uninfected even after 24 hours.

It follows that "wrought tin" (rolled tin, tinned sheet-iron tin foil) must be considered an unstable product, inasmuch as recrystallization to the form which is stable at ordinary temperatures is the grain, but the transformation is extremely slow at such temperatures. Within certain limits, an increase of temperature increases the rapidity of transformation. Under another experiment consisted in applying to a metal plate such as mentioned above, some powdered infected tin foil and on top of this, a polished plate of tinned sheet iron. Heating to 100 deg. C. caused the polished plate to become infected immediately, while the metal plate remained uninfected even after 24 hours.

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#### The Current Supplement.

The opening article of the current Supplement, No. 1178, describes a new kind of compressing machine, and the recent developments of American locomotives are discussed—Mr. Leon A. Hackett's excellent article on the Progress of Cotton Spinning is concluded—Prof. J. A. Bering reviews the work of Lord Kelvin in telegraphy and navigation—in an excellent article entitled "Oil Field Phenomena." Mr. A. B. B. Thompson gives a brief review of the mode of occurrence of "oil fields" and the means adopted for their search and recovery—Mr. R. T. Hewitt writes on stored milk from the Matchless standpoint—Plant anesthetics is explained by S. Leonard Bastin.

It is reported in the Electrician that the Chicago Elevated Railway Commission is considering five plans to solve the problem of "through routes" for "through" traffic in that city. Thirty-eight plans were submitted to the Commission, and five of these were selected for more careful study. Mr. R. J. Arnold, who is chairman of the Commission, feels that progress has been made in narrowing down the work. It is pointed out that each of the five elevated railway companies is operating under a separate ordinance granted by the city, and that the introduction of the elevated line is caused by the joint use of "downward" traffic. The Commission is now doubtful whether they can afford to build passenger cars greater distance than about six miles for five cents, but there is apparently a desire on the part of the Commission to reach a solution of the question.

#### To the Editor of the Scientific American.

The answers and superintendents in various ways, such as New York, and the others, have been given a movement to organize of the situation in America with a view of securing to Congress the opinion of the explained answers on requests restrictive legislation. The answers have been given to Congress before any of the pending bills are enacted into law.

I have been retained to counsel for this movement. If you valuable paper will publish this article, I trust that every wireless telegraph throughout the United States will send his name to me at my office, Hilde Building, Washington, D. C.

Geo. Hiram Mann.

#### "RECRISTALLIZATION."

To the Editor of the Scientific American: Relative to your suggestion regarding the new work proposed by Mr. Wood, namely, "recrystallization," it seems to me rather complicated, and I would suggest that the most satisfactory term, machining or machining, would be far more appropriate in the application which he suggests.

R. W. Moore.

Waterbury, Conn. [The term "recrystallization" does not refer to the "machining" but to the mechanical handling, i. e., moving, placing, centering, etc., of a piece of work.—Ed.]

#### GIVING THE APPEARANCE OF RELIEF TO PICTURES.

To the Editor of the Scientific American: A simple method of giving the appearance of relief to pictures can be seen by the experiment that if a sheet of glass with minute cylindrical ridges on a side held against a photograph, with the series of ridges vertical, be viewed through, the dispersing light gives a picture a stereographic effect of solidity.

The utility of a minutely stated dispersing glass over glass screen therefore can be shown, which is caused by the stereoscopic dispersion by the cylindrical ridges of the light that is reflected by the photograph. The stereoscopic effect is caused by the dispersion of the light and the changes of the viewing screen.

The dispersion of the light by the refraction through these ridges of the light stereoscopic screen produces to each eye a different appropriate view of the picture, which produces the impression of solidity and depth.

A. F. WOOD CHENOWETH

London, England

#### Scientific American Prizes for Inventions.

THE SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN offers \$100 in three prizes, to be awarded to the inventor who gives the best account of how he conceived his invention, how he developed it in actual practice, and how he succeeded in selling it. This sum of \$100 to be distributed as follows: \$30 to the best account, \$35 to the best account, \$35 to the third best account.

There is no limitation as to subject matter of the invention. In other words, the invention may be a household utensil, a game, a piece of electrical apparatus, an improvement in railway construction, a metallurgical process, etc. The following conditions, however, must be observed:

1. The invention must be patented.
2. The inventor must have actually sold his patent, and the invention must have been commercially introduced.
3. The account of the inventor's success must not be longer than 800 words.
4. The composition, letter, or article must be typewritten on one side of the paper only.
5. The inventor must sign his paper with a pseudonym, and inclose it in a sealed envelope, upon which the pseudonym is written. A second sealed envelope must be inclosed, bearing on the outside the pseudonym under which the offering is submitted, and containing the real name and address of the contributor.
6. Contributors must address their offerings to: Inventors' Prize Editor, SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, 335 Broadway, New York City.
7. The contest remains open until August 1st.
8. Judges will select the essays which, in their opinion, have won the three prizes and give them to the Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN, who will then select the sealed envelopes containing the names of the contributors, and notify the winners of the contest.
9. The Editor of the SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN reserves the right to publish any portion of the essays, as well as the names of the contributors, without their consent.
10. The SCIENTIFIC AMERICAN reserves the right to publish any portion of the essays, as well as the names of the contributors, without their consent.



# THE GERMAN DREADNOUGHT "NASSAU"

## THE FIRST OF THE GERMAN FLEET OF DREADNOUGHTS TO BE COMPLETED

In view of the great secrecy which has attended the construction of the "Nassau," the type ship of the fleet of German dreadnaughts some surprise was expressed upon the first public view of the ship, that she possessed, as a dreadnaught, no features of marked novelty. To the people of the United States, there is something familiar about the arrangement of her main battery, with its armament of heavy guns carried in six turrets, one forward and one aft of the center line, and four arranged amidships quadrilaterally. Their thoughts will be carried back some twenty years to the time when the plans of our first battleships "Oregon," "Massachusetts," and "Indiana" were made public. The distinctive feature in these vessels was the heavy battery which they carried and the novel plan upon which it was disposed, the pairs of 12-inch guns being carried in turrets forward and aft and the pairs of 8-inch guns being mounted in four turrets two on either beam, arranged at the four corners of the superstructure. This, it will be observed is practically the plan followed in the

ships of our own navy, the guns are all mounted upon the longitudinal axis of the ship, and consequently the whole power of the 12-inch battery can be brought to bear on the broadside throughout a wide area of training.

In justification of their adoption of the quadrilateral system of mounting, the Germans announce their conviction that in the engagements of the future there will be more fighting in the head-on or gun-towing position than the advocates of the all-centerline system of mounting believe, and they emphasize the fact that the "Nassau" can not only concentrate six heavy guns in the end-on position, but that she could deliver this heavy fire, should the enemies of an engagement demand it, both forward and astern at the same time. Furthermore, there is a certain advantage in the fact that two guns and four turrets are held in reserve on the lee side and are greatly protected by the turrets which are in engagement on what might be called the weather fighting side of the ship.

But, not only would the broadside fire of the "Nassau" be increased from 8 to 12 heavy guns, but the end-on fire would be strengthened by the addition of two more guns, raising it from a concentration of six to one of eight guns. This is the method adopted in the new Argentine cruisers, the most powerful dreadnaughts now under construction, which will be able to fire eight guns ahead or eight astern, or twelve on either broadside.

However, in estimating the merits of warship design, we must be careful to bear in mind the question of displacement, which in the "Nassau" stands at the very moderate figure of 16,500 tons; and, to remember that our latest dreadnaughts have run up to 26,000 tons, it must surely be admitted that the Germans, in view of the limited displacement of the "Nassau," have turned out a decidedly odd-looking ship.

The following dimensions, which have been obtained through the courtesy of the German Navy Department, may be taken as correct: Length, 453 feet, beam, 60



Length, 453 feet. Beam, 60 feet. Draft, 24½ feet. Displacement, 16,500 tons. Normal coal supply, 560 tons. (Forward 1 turret, 12 inches; stern and broadside, 12 inches. Armament 1 Twelve 12-inch guns; 4 Twelve 8-inch guns; 4 sixteen 8-inch guns.)

### "NASSAU"—FIRST OF THE GERMAN DREADNOUGHTS.

"Nassau." Incidentally, it may be mentioned that the Japanese have adopted the same arrangement in the first dreadnaughts built for their navy.

Obviously, the principal disadvantage of the system is that the ship, although she mounts twelve heavy guns, can bring only eight of them to bear upon either broadside, at least four guns being masked by the superstructure or by the other turrets while she is fighting a broadside engagement with the enemy in

Should the weather guns be disabled, it would be possible for the fleet to make a complete turn of 180 degrees, and bring four big guns, with their gun crews entirely fresh, into the fight.

To these arguments it will be answered that, by moving one of the four amidships turrets forward and placing it at a sufficient height to fire above the foremost turret, and removing another of the turret aft and giving it a similar relation to the aftermost

feet, draft, 24½ feet; displacement, 16,500 tons; normal coal supply, 560 tons. The "Nassau" is driven by triple engines, and on her trials considerably exceeded her contract speed of 19 knots and may be set down as a 20-knot vessel. The armament consists of twelve 12-inch, twelve 8-inch, and sixteen 4.5-inch guns. She is protected by eleven inches of Krupp armor on the belt and the barbettes and turret, and twelve inches of the same on the conning tower.

An English Judicial Opinion of Complex Patents. The complexity of patent specification phraseology, and particularly the bewildering character of the claims of an American patent, were recently made the subject of a decision of the House of Lords. The case, which five members of the House were called upon to decide, was that of Linotype and Machinery Limited vs. Hopkins. We presume that the specification, which called forth the condemnation of the Lords, was simply the American specification filed in England without any change. The following is an extract from the decision, the unanimous judgment of the five members of the House of Lords:

"The appellant (i. e., the patentees) has filed a specification which resembles a treatise in its length;

it contains no less than sixty claims; there is infinite redundancy and repetition and constant reference to illustrations which are not very easy to follow. Altogether it is a document which needs the most prolonged and penetrating study in order that anyone who wishes to work out problems of invention in this class of industry, may know where they stand and how they may be free from the danger of infringing foreign patents.

"The point whether this patent is good or not does not arise in this case, but I think it is not duty to state explicitly that those who file and secure specifications must take the risk of having the whole thing declared void for ambiguity. I have had occasion to observe that there is a tendency to frame specifications

and claims so as to puzzle a student, and to frighten men of business into taking out no patents for fear that their specification may be held ambiguous, and that they are found guilty of infringement. That is an abuse of the law and will be checked if evidence should require, by the simple process of declaring the patent invalid."

Uranium is found commercially in only two minerals in the United States, pitchblende and uraninite. Pitchblende, which is found in the form of a black, ashy, granular mass, is the most common of the two. It is found only in the State of Colorado. Uraninite, which is found in the form of a black, ashy, granular mass, is the most common of the two. It is found only in the State of Colorado.

# Hamilton's Round-Trip Aeroplane Flight from New York to Philadelphia

## A REMARKABLE CROSS-COUNTRY FLIGHT

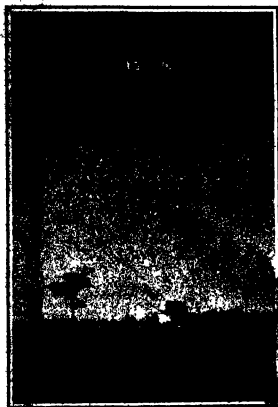
Only a few days after Glenn H. Curtiss's flight from Albany to New York, aviator Charles E. Hamilton made a more daring and thrilling flight from New York to Philadelphia. This second flight was planned by the New York Times and the Philadelphia Public Ledger and aviator Hamilton, carrying a letter from

Mayor Gaynor of New York to Governor Stuart of Pennsylvania, executed the flight on schedule time. During a considerable part of the trip he raced a special train which at times found difficulty in keeping up with him.

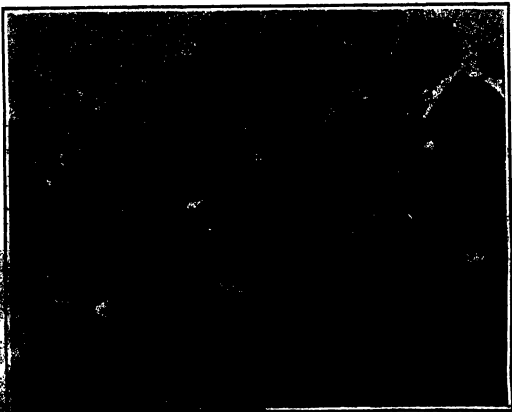
The start was made from Governor's Island at 7:35

A. M. on Monday, June 13th. The actual start took place only after Hamilton had broken a propeller in attempting to start the first time, due to the bird striking a stick that lay upon the ground. As soon as he had substituted a new propeller—the very one used

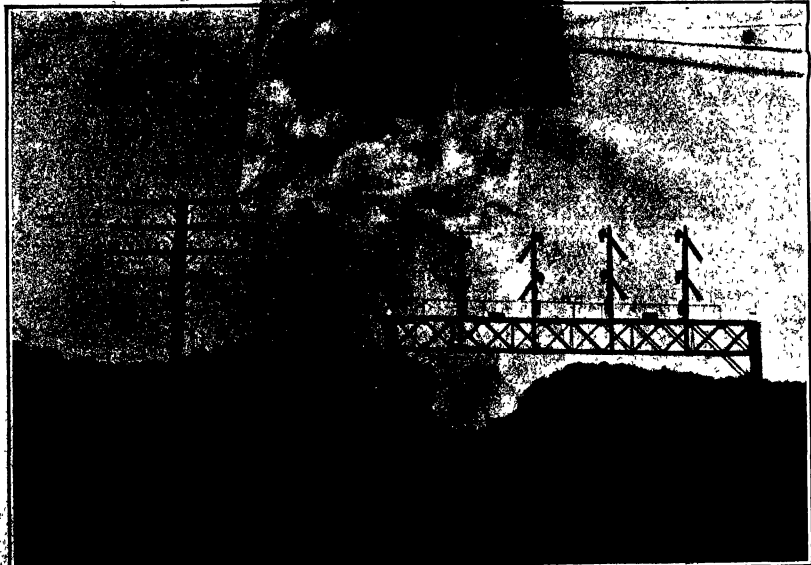
(Continued on page 527.)



Walter Brewster flying at the Indianapolis meet. Brewster made a new height record of 4,000 feet. For description see page 578.



Message to Gov. Stuart upon his Philadelphia.



Hamilton flying over the Pennsylvania Railroad tracks in pursuit of the special train.

HAMILTON'S ROUND-TRIP AEROPLANE FLIGHT FROM NEW YORK TO PHILADELPHIA.



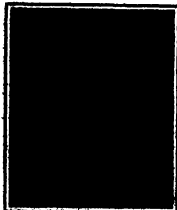
# The Home Laboratory

(The plans of the Home Laboratory will be glad to receive any suggestions for this department and will pay for them, promptly if possible.)

## WARNING! GENERALS

BY YOUR OWNERS' REMARKS ONLY ONE STATE COURTESY

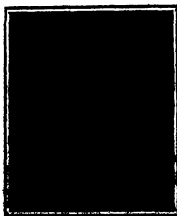
To cause two objects to change places that is, in sum from one vessel into another and vice versa is a trick sometimes done by conjurers. What is new



CONTENTS OF TUBES BEFORE MIXING

In the performance described here is the evident non-interference of the magician and the possibility of watching the trick clearly in full light. The vessels used are two perfectly transparent glass test tubes. Every spectator can see that they contain nothing but the two substances about to change place. One of these is a fluid, transparent, colorless liquid which fills about one-half of the tube. The other tube contains nothing but a white, opaque powder. Both tubes are given to some skeptical spectators, with the assurance that they be kept well apart, one tube of each hand, and that the experimenter should remember which the liquid or solid is kept in the right or left hand. The skeptical person is then ordered to close the tubes with his thumbs and to shake them. After shaking complied with this request, he will find that the two substances have apparently changed places, the tube which contained a white opaque solid now contains a colorless transparent liquid, and the tube which contained a watery liquid is now filled with white opaque perfectly solid substance.

Some curious and but little known properties of opaque substances are used for this performance. One is in the property of salol to remain in the frozen state with such a tenacity (in open vessels, presence of unfiltered air) and for such a time that no other substance equals it in that respect, even perhaps the metal gallium. Salol is used in making for some kinds of intestinal troubles and is sold at every drugstore. Some ten grammes of it are placed into a clean and dry test tube, care being taken not to leave crystals adhering on the walls of the tube.



CONTENTS OF TUBES AFTER MIXING

The chemical is then melted over any flame. (A candle will do, as the fusion point of salol is but 45 degrees Centigrade.) Once melted, it is heated a trifle over the boiling point, so as to break any particles of solid left in the liquid. This is then allowed to cool and is ready for use. The experiment, even two or three times, will be found to be very successful. Care must be taken to avoid any flame from the candle.

the crystallization but vigorous shaking for about ten seconds invariably transforms the liquid into a solid white mass. At the moment of the solidification the cold tube instantaneously becomes hot.

The property of solid camphor to rapidly melt into a liquid compound whenever ground or shaken with solid chloral hydrate is used in the other test tube. The two chemicals must be finely powdered, and the camphor is sprinkled with a few drops of alcohol before being ground. The two white powders look alike and are supposed in the tube, two parts in volume of camphor being taken for one of chloral hydrate. The shaking rapidly mixes and liquefies them. Large tubes or bottles of any thickness can be used when the experiment is made in a hall. The fusion of salol is then produced in a water bath.

## SIMPLE TESTS FROM ELECTRIC LIGHT BURNS

BY JAMES BAILEY

Many people have wished to perform experiments with Geissler tubes but owing to their high cost have not been able to do so.

By the following simple and inexpensive method anyone who possesses a one-inch or larger induction coil can make a very good substitute for a Geissler tube from any of the standard electric light bulbs. Burned out lamps or lamps in which the filaments are broken give the best results, and can be had for next to nothing. The effect is much better if the filament is broken into fine pieces, as it then does not interfere with the discharge in the bulb. Metal filaments can easily be broken by striking the lamp with the hand, but in carbon lamps the filament is sometimes so tough

that it is difficult to break. In such cases the filament may be broken by using a pair of pliers to pull it apart.

The following is a simple method of making a Geissler tube from a burned out lamp. The lamp is first cleaned by washing it with kerosene or alcohol, and then with water. It is then dried by holding it over a flame.

The lamp is then filled with a mixture of sulfuric acid and water. The acid is first diluted with an equal volume of water, and then the mixture is poured into the lamp.

The lamp is then sealed at the top, and the acid is allowed to settle. The lamp is then placed in a solution of sodium carbonate, and the acid is neutralized.

The lamp is then placed in a solution of sodium chloride, and the acid is neutralized. The lamp is then placed in a solution of sodium sulfate, and the acid is neutralized.

The lamp is then placed in a solution of sodium nitrate, and the acid is neutralized. The lamp is then placed in a solution of sodium phosphate, and the acid is neutralized.

The lamp is then placed in a solution of sodium borate, and the acid is neutralized. The lamp is then placed in a solution of sodium silicate, and the acid is neutralized.

The lamp is then placed in a solution of sodium carbonate, and the acid is neutralized. The lamp is then placed in a solution of sodium chloride, and the acid is neutralized.

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The lamp is then placed in a solution of sodium silicate, and the acid is neutralized. The lamp is then placed in a solution of sodium carbonate, and the acid is neutralized.

direct or alternating current. The interruptions obtained with this type of interrupter are very high, being in the neighborhood of 1000 per second.

The electrolytic and electrostatic are similar in a wet battery jar. A wood plug should be turned to fit tightly in the top of the jar and bolted thoroughly in paraffin to protect it from the acid fumes. A glass tube 6 inches long with an internal diameter of 1/4 inch should be procured and a hole slightly larger than the external diameter of the tube bored through the center of the wood cover. The tube is held in position by a heavy brass screw and is driven through the plug. The anode is a 1/4 inch round brass rod should be straight.



A SIMPLE ELECTROLYTIC INTERRUPTER

used so as to slide very easily through the glass tube. One end of the rod should be squared off and the other end threaded and a tapered brass ball fitted to it. It is weight by gravitation feeds the rod into the solution as it is used. One side of the ball should be tapered and fitted with a blinding post for connecting purposes. The cathode consists of a lead strip 1 by 1 by 1/4 inch suspended in the solution from a machine screw the threaded end of which terminates in a binding post for connections. To assemble fill the jar a third full with a 10 per cent solution of sulphuric acid, place the wood cover on firmly, lower the glass tube through the hole till it is 1/4 inch from the bottom of the jar and tighten the spring against it. Then put the rod through the glass tube till it is resting on the bottom of the jar. In use when the current is turned on the apparatus will break down and rupture the current. If the interrupter is used on alternating current the anode will wear down quickly. Connections using alternating current are identical to the same as direct, but without regard to polarity as alternating current constantly reverses poles. If intended for continuous work the electrolytic should be cooled by running water through a coiled glass tube in the bottom of the jar. This interrupter will successfully operate coils from the small sizes up to the 10 inch size and is especially desirable in wire less telegraphic transmission as it also materially in the production of a penetrating high frequency wave.

## DEVICE FOR TESTING ELECTRIC WIRES

BY JAMES BAILEY

In testing electric wiring for open circuits grounds or short circuits it is often necessary to sketch the location of the wires under test in a number of places so as to connect them to a magnet or other testing device. The accompanying illustration shows



TESTING NEEDLE FOR INSULATED WIRE

a device which does away with this necessity. It contains a sharp needle point which can be easily pushed through the insulation until it makes a good electrical contact with the wire within. The device is made out of a hard wood handle bored through out its whole length to the diameter of the needle. The small end is then countersunk to a larger diameter and a plug is made that will drive tightly into the countersunk end. The next step is to procure a large sized sewing needle which is driven through the plug as shown in the sketch. The eye end of the needle is soldered to a length of lamp cord which is passed

## CONSTRUCTION OF A SIMPLE ELECTROLYTIC INTERRUPTER

BY JAMES BAILEY

The electrolytic current interrupter described here may be used in place of the troublesome vibrator on spark coils. It is to be operated on 50 to 250 volts







Tork are banded together to help support the American Museum of Natural History. This journal is itself vitally interested in the question of safety for industrial workers, safety on the railroads, and safety at sea. The terrible loss of life and limb which is caused each year as the industrial toll is something monstrous. Each year 700,000 people in the United States, men, women and children, are either killed or maimed by accidents which in most cases are absolutely preventable. There are, of course, certain accidents which make even the heaviest machinery which as the result of the force which cannot make themselves manifest during the progress of manufacture, but in the majority of cases it is possible to either prevent this industrial loss or to minimize it, so that the damage is not so great. The book before us is one of the finest on this point we have ever seen of this twentieth century humanitarian interest. The illustrations show what a cruel and deceptive looking place is a freight yard at night, with its gleamy white, green and red lights mutually inextricably confused. There are illustrations of the dangers which surround the workers in great manufacturing plants, also the great need of guards for the protection of road working machinery. The suggestions for prevention are many and are absolutely sound. The United States steel corporation has already expressed its willingness to safeguard its employees, and not from any selfish motive, but from the fact that about the whole situation. Plants all over the country are expending a large sum to insure the safety of their employees, not with the idea that they will lessen the damage, but from an extreme and blind desire to prevent the shocking industrial waste. It is a small thing to put on the pay envelope "You are responsible for the safety of your employees as well as the safety of yourself" but a little reminder of this kind will do much. This book has one of the best indexes we have ever seen, and the whole book is a great credit to everyone concerned.

**THE UNMAKING OF HOMER-HUDSON.** Together With a Treatise on Handicraft. By Harry Hudson. London: George Routledge & Sons, Ltd., 1909. 12mo.

The author of this book is a well-known performer on the vaudeville stage. Unlike most men of his calling he takes a commendable historic and academic interest in it. We venture to say that he probably stands outside of that respect. To perform the comedy of manner of search which he has evidently considered requires not only a love for the art of professionalization and magic but also expert knowledge. Both of these Mr. Hudson possesses to a marked degree. After reading his book you can be no doubt that Homer-Hudson's account, very little to the art of vaudeville, that like many conjurers, he was a man of few ideas, but one of those who were before him. Although he makes no pretensions to literary excellence, Mr. Hudson has written a most fascinating book on a fascinating subject. His historical researches have been supplemented with comments on his own performance which reveal how many of the handicrafts he has watched vaudeville operators of to day are performed.

**ORNDORF'S HISTORY.** By Josephine Helena Short. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co., 1910. 12mo., 184 pp. Price, 61 net.

The subject of this book is to give an outline description of the village where the Passion Play is produced, of the people of the village and their everyday life with special attention to the characters known to take part in the sacred drama. The author has visited the locality at times when it was not thronged with tourists, and has established herself on terms of friendship with the inhabitants. A helpful review of the Passion Play is included in the volume, together with other information of value to visitors to the town and of interest to those who travel only through the medium of books. The work of the author has also had the great pleasure of seeing the Passion Play and he can certify to the soundness of the descriptions of both the place and the great religious drama that is enacted therein.

**THE WOMAN SHORT BOOKS. Suggestions for the Selection for a Home Library.** Champaign: The Globe-Wernicke Company, 1909.

The book before us, which consists of some 17 pages interestingly printed in two columns, contains a carefully classified list of books desirable for the home library arranged appropriately. These are, first, the one hundred best books of John Leavis; then Parnell's list of twelve; his list of nine of best books for boys and girls; the ten best novels; twenty best novels; novels of the five; novels which illustrate English life; novels of the new problem novel; and lastly Dr. Miller's five-foot library and Roosevelt's eleven books. This is extremely very valuable information condensed in a short space. By the by, the book is well free of expense.

**CAMP COOKING.** By Horace Kephart. New York: Outing Publishing Company, 1910. 12mo., 184 pp. Price, 51 net.

At last we have a good book on camp cooking. The ordinary cook book would be very

useless in a camp, as many of the ingredients would not readily be obtained. The best before us is one of the best cook books that have ever come to this reviewer's hands. It gives previously the information that is required, and in a scientific manner which is greatly to be commended. The recipes are thoroughly common-sense, and include directions for cooking all kinds of dishes which mark of the woods, as deer's heads, mouse heads, venison steaks, lamb chops, "yomms," fish baked in clay, and many other equally valuable dishes. Each of the dairy articles of food as corn bread are also described. The book is small and will readily slip in the pocket. It will not add a great deal to the weight. The slip cover is very handsome, and the photograph is worthy of better use.

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**MANGANESE STEEL RAILS.**  
(Continued from page 518.)  
rails used by the Boston Elevated upon  
its curves were formed by casting. This  
is, of course, an expensive process in  
that the composition rail costs about  
\$5 per foot for the rails. The ordi-  
nary rail costs only about 38 cents per  
foot, or only 1/15 as much. But even then  
it is regarded as a good investment, be-  
cause of the very long life. In the au-  
tumn of 1908 the company had in service  
476 feet of this rail in addition to three  
crossings and a number of ordinary  
crossings. Its experience is certainly worthy  
of attention. However, if manganese  
steel can be rolled to advantage, we may  
expect a still better material at a lower  
figure. In fact, such rails have been  
rolled to sell for about \$200 per ton, or  
about \$2.50 per foot (about 85 pound sec-  
tion).

Perhaps a considerable portion of the  
expense of rolling manganese-steel rails  
is due to the considerable piping to which  
these rails are subject, requiring thus a large discard or special  
means of prevention. On the other hand,  
considerable blow holes are thought to be  
inherent, if they occur at all. This is at-  
tributed to the high percentage of sub-  
stances which have a stronger affinity for  
oxygen than iron. This will be bet-  
ter understood, if we consider, by considering  
an analysis of manganese steel.

	From	To
Manganese . . .	0.1100	0.1200
Silicon . . . . .	0.0025	0.0040
Phosphorus . . .	0.0006	0.0011
Sulphur . . . . .	0.0002	0.0006
Iron . . . . .	0.9707	0.9583

10000 10000  
Some of the difficulties of rolling this  
metal have been given by Mr. W. S. Foster.  
When the temperature has fallen as  
low as about 1,300 deg. F. it becomes ap-  
parently inadvisable to continue, not  
merely because of the great difficulty of  
making reductions, but more especially  
because, when air-cooled afterward, the  
metal will be found to have a coarse  
structure and to be wanting in some of  
its desirable qualities. The steel was, how-  
ever, re-rolled by reheating and  
quenching. However, we have then met  
that excellence which results from roll-  
ing. Consequently, for the usual meth-  
ods, 1,300 deg. F. is to be regarded as  
the lower limit. As to the upper limit  
—it is necessary to avoid burning or  
cracking for the reason that then the  
steel will be apt to crush in the mill.  
Apparently, the upper limit beyond  
which it is scarcely safe to go is about  
1,875 deg. F. We have then a thermal  
range of about 575 deg. F. in which to  
effect the rolling. But a rail input in the  
ordinary American practice has last  
about 900 deg. F. by the time it has  
passed through the finishing rolls. Now  
it may be that manganese steel may cool  
somewhat more slowly than the ordinary  
rail steel. But we cannot expect the dif-  
ference to be 575 deg. and 900 deg. to  
be thus made up. So that, if we should  
proceed by the usual methods, we would  
be unable to secure our desired result.  
However, manganese steel has been suc-  
cessfully rolled in France, in England,  
and in the United States.

**HAMILTON'S AEROPLANE FLIGHT**

(Continued from page 521.)  
By Curtis in his trip down the Hudson  
—he quickly rose into the air and made  
a large circle over the island. When he  
left the shore and started to cross the  
Lower Bay four or five minutes later  
and elapsed, so that the actual start was  
made at about 7:40. After flying across  
the bay and the Kill von Kull, Hamilton  
struck the line of the Pennsylvania Rail-  
road at South Elizabeth, and followed it  
precisely all the way to Philadelphia.  
The special train, bearing a white  
streamer on the roof of the locomotive  
car, soon loaded him and caught up with  
(Continued on page 526.)











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